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Semantics and Syntax

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Introduction

This book, *Semantics and Syntax*, has been written to be studied by the students of translation, the Department of Translation, the Open-learning Centre, Damascus University. The first Part, i.e. ***Semantics***, was written by Dr. Nafez A. Shammas, the second, i.e. ***Syntax***, by Dr. Abbas Naama.

The reason for combining semantics with syntax must be obvious: in the study of linguistic meaning, apart from the area of Pragmatics and the role of relevant cultural parameters in elucidating meaning as intended in context, focus is normally laid on both *lexical semantics*, on the one hand, and on the *linguistic structure*, mainly syntactic relations, on the other.

Thus, the first Part concentrates mainly on *lexical semantics*, i.e. the study of the meaning of the various linguistic units, the *morpheme*, the *word* with all its lexical features and the *sentence* as the largest linguistic unit that can be analyzed grammatically and is thus capable of producing meaning on its own, but in the relevant context of use.

Because of the close relationship between the semantic structure of sentences – and in fact other linguistic units – and

the pragmatic principles acting on these structures for both the production and reception of meaning, a distinction is drawn between *semantics* and *pragmatics* in Part I. It is thus argued that all semantic structures have to be subsumed under the study of pragmatics for meaning to be clarified.

The second Part on Syntax, written by Dr. Naama, must provide an adequate background for how we produce, not only *correct*, but also *meaningful*, structures. Thus, syntax - the study of the *order* of words in sentences and other units – it must be emphasized, does have a bearing on the study, interpretation, and understanding of meaning. This orientation for the study of the relationship between structure and meaning is clarified in Part II of this book.

Finally, it is definitely the job of the tutor and the learners to discuss as many examples as possible, and in any language they know, for reaching a clear idea on how meaning is produced, received and understood. This can always be negotiated on both levels, the structural and the lexical, apart from the linguistic and the *contextual*, the latter being a pragmatic property.

Dr N. A. Shammas
December, 2004

Part One: Semantics

By

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Chapter I: Linguistic and Non-linguistic Meaning


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1.1 Introduction

Interestingly, many, perhaps most, semanticists (e.g. Kempson, 1977; Leech, 1974, 1981; Lyons, 1981 among others) introduce the study of semantics as the study of *meaning,* even in the very titles of their papers and books. Others suggest various meanings to the word *meaning* (e.g. Ogden and Richards, 1923, who present a list of as many as twenty-two definitions of the word *meaning).* In conclusion to such approaches and studies, the word meaning becomes more intricate for the student of linguistics to understand, and the study of semantics turns to be even more ambiguous.

On the other hand, pragmatists, such as Austin (1962), Grice (1975), Levinson (1983), Sperber and Wilson (1986; 1995), Blass (1990), Blakemore (1992), Shammas (1995) among others, have shown that meaning, as intended by the speaker in a given context, is only a product of the interaction between intra-linguistic factors and extra-linguistic criteria. The non-linguistic principles governing the *use* and *interpretation* of utterances are of a pragmatic nature. Al-Jurjani, one of the brilliant Arab linguists of the Middle Ages, had stated that the word meaning cannot be properly understood out of context

(see Owens, 1988).

To simplify matters, then, I would like to state from the outset that the study of semantics is, and should be, limited to the study of *linguistic meaning* resulting from linguistic analyses and relations. In other words, under the banner of semantics, all linguistic units and their relations, such as the morpheme (whether free or bound), the word (with all its variations and uses), word associations, and the sentence (with all its types and structures) are studied. Above all, textual cohesion (see Halliday and Hasan, 1976), embracing all sentential relations in a text, is subsumed under the study of semantics. However, the context of use, including the time, place, the topic discussed, the inter-personal relationships between participants, and the very selectivity of linguistic items and units, are all aspects of pragmatic knowledge and a reflection of it. Thus, if it is the *cognitive environment* (see Sperber and Wilson, 1995) of the speaker that governs *linguistic choices,* their *use,* and *interpretation,* then semantics should be subsumed under pragmatics in the study of *meaning as intended* in verbal communication.

In the light of my assumption above, semantics is studied as part and parcel of *Language in Use,* or what is termed *General Pragmatics* (see Leech, 1980).

General Pragmatics has traditionally been divided into two components: *Pragma-linguistics* and *socio-pragmatics.* I have suggested a third component, under which the language forms studied do not seem to belong to any of the former two. This third subdivision is *Lingua-pragmatics.* The fixed linguistic forms, such as those of *greetings, compliments, God-wishes (see Ferguson, 1983), condolences, thanks and gratitude, farewells, and interjections* (e.g. oops! gee! Phew!), which have fixed social values and a stable pragmatic force each, all belong to lingua-pragmatics. This last division is thus a link between pragma-linguistics and socio-pragmatics. Obviously, semantics, in the study of language in use, should have a closer relationship with pragma-linguistics, which is in turn closer to the grammar of the language in question, whereas

socio-pragmatics is closer to sociology (see Figure 1 below):

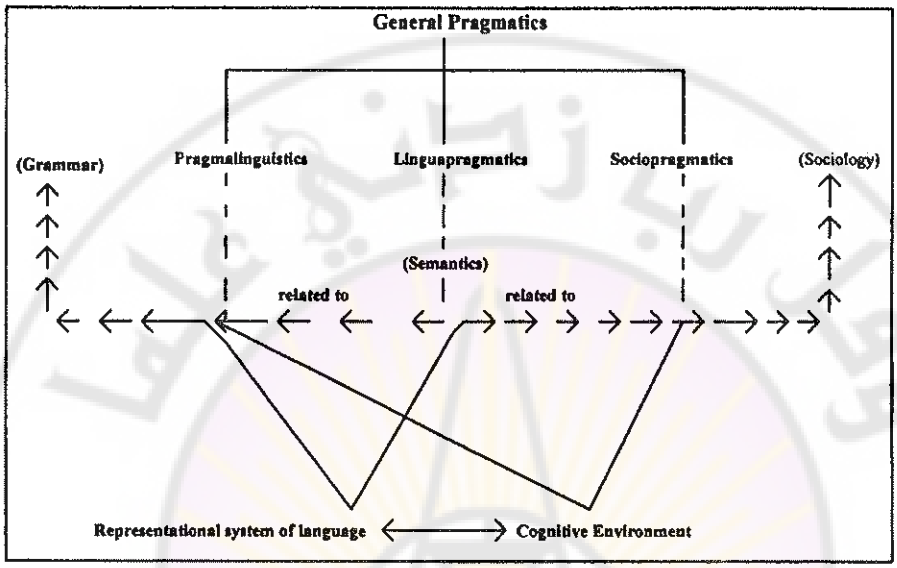

Figure 1: Components of General Pragmatics

(Adapted from Leech, 1983: 11; modified by Shammas, 1995: 110)

Diagram (1) above shows the various components of *Language in Use* as well as the relations of these components to other fields of study, within the framework of Relevance Theory represented by its two pillars, the *representational system of language* and the *cognitive environment* of communicators. Notice in particular the indirectly related areas *of grammar* and *sociology,* and the closer contact between lingua-pragmatics and pragma-linguistics on the one hand, and between lingua-pragmatics and socio-pragmatics on

the other — which suggests that language use occurs in a continuum rather than in discrete items of verbal communication. Semantics is obviously more closely related to pragma-linguistics than lingua-pragmatics, simply because the former is more of a linguistic nature, whereas the latter is a mediator between language and sociology. Consequently, by attempting to understand semantics, we, in fact, try to analyze, interpret, and comprehend the meaning of the various linguistic units and their relations.

I. 2 Different Approaches to the Study of Meaning

Different formulations of what semantics & pragmatics are have been presented in a chronological order expressing different interpretations and perspectives of both semantics and pragmatics. These are as follows:

1) Morris (1938/1971: 35, 43) believes that Semantics deals with the relation of signs to . . . objects which they may or do denote. Pragmatics concerns the relation of signs to their interpreters

Stalnaker (1972: 383)

Syntax studies sentences, *semantics* studies propositions. *Pragmatics* is the study of linguistic acts and the contexts in which they are performed. There are two major types of problems to be solved within pragmatics: first, to define interesting types of speech acts and speech products; second, to characterize the features of the speech context which help determine which proposition is expressed by a given sentence. . . . It is a semantic problem to specify the rules for matching up sentences of a natural language with the propositions that they express. In most cases, however, the rules will not match sentences directly with propositions, but will match sentences with propositions relative to features of the context in which the sentence is used. These contextual features are part of the subject matter of pragmatics.

Katz (1977: 14)

[I] draw the theoretical line between semantic interpretation and pragmatic interpretation by taking the semantic component to properly represent only those aspects of the meaning of the sentence that an ideal speaker-hearer of the language would know in an anonymous letter situation, . . .

[where there is] no clue whatever about the motive, circumstances of transmission, or any other factor relevant to understanding the sentence on the basis of its context of utterance.

Gazdar (1979: 24 - 5)

PRAGMATICS = MEANING - TRUTH CONDITIONS

What we need in addition is some function that tells us about the meaning of utterances. . . . The domain of this pragmatic function is the set of utterances, which are pairs of sentences and contexts, so that for each utterance, our function will return as a value a new context – the context as changed by the sentence uttered . . . . And we can treat the meaning of the utterance as the difference between the original context and the context arrived at by uttering the sentence. [This applies to only] a restricted subset of pragmatic aspects of meaning.

Kempson (1988: 139)

Semantics provides a complete account of sentence meaning for the language, [by] recursively specifying the truth conditions of the sentences of the language . . . . Pragmatics provides an account of how sentences are used in utterances to

convey information in context.

The Oxford Companion to Philosophy (Fotion, 1995: 709)
Pragmatics is the study of language which focuses attention on the users and the context of language use rather than on reference, truth, or grammar.

The Cambridge Dictionary of Philosophy (Lycan, 1995: 588)
Pragmatics studies the use of language in context, and the context-dependence of various aspects of linguistic interpretation. . . . [Its branches include the theory of how] one and the same sentence can express different meanings or propositions from context to context, owing to ambiguity or indexicality or both, . . . speech act theory, and the theory of conversational implicature.

The Blackwell Companion to Philosophy (Davies 1996: 124)
The distinction between semantics and pragmatics is, roughly, the distinction between the significance conventionally or literally attached to words, and thence to whole sentences, and the further significance that can be worked out, by more general principles, using contextual information.

On the other hand, in their Theory of *Relevance* and its interpretations, Sperber and Wilson (1986a; 1995) define pragmatics as **"the study of general cognitive principles and abilities involved in utterance interpretation, and of their cognitive effects"** (Wilson & Sperber, 1987: 5). In fact, to them, pragmatics is the study of the contextual features that help listeners/readers interpret utterances in line with the speaker's intended meaning. But context is, for the first time in the history of linguistic studies, defined differently and objectively relying on findings in cognitive psychology:

"A context is a psychological construct, a subset of the hearer's assumptions about the world. It is these assumptions, of course, rather than the actual state of the world, that affect the interpretation of an utterance. A context in this sense is not limited to information about the immediate physical environment or the immediate preceding utterances: expectations about the future, scientific hypotheses, anecdotal memories, general cultural assumptions, beliefs about the mental state of the speaker, may all play a role in interpretation" (Sperber and Wilson, 1986a: 15 - 16).

Gutt (1991: 25 - 6), goes even further in attaching more information to context that

"comprises a potentially huge amount of very varied information. It includes information that can be perceived in the physical environment, information that can be retrieved from memory . . .

including information derived from preceding utterances plus any cultural or other knowledge stored there - and furthermore information that can be inferred from these two sources" [Gutt's italics].

As the short summary above of how different scholars view semantics and/or pragmatics, we can easily observe that semantics is understood differently by different scholars and linguists. Because of the imprecise and *slippery* notion of 'meaning', linguists were in the last few decades dissatisfied with the work of the semanticists such as Kempson (1977); Davidson (1984); Leech (1981); Lyons (1981) among others, who tried, in vain, to account for the meaning of utterances. Many linguists, socio-linguists, and philosophers of language thought that such a task is to be delegated to pragmatics and pragmatists.

A distinction between semantics and pragmatics should of necessity depend on the definition of these two disciplines of the study of meaning and on what is precisely meant by 'meaning'. Thus, if 'meaning' is dealt with on the level of 'sentence', then it is semantics which is called for; on the other hand, if it is the utterance as a part of verbal

communication which is discussed, then resort to pragmatics is a must. Morris (1987) believes that semantics deals with the relationship between the linguistic signs and the objects they refer to, whereas to him, pragmatics is the relationship between the sign and its users. However, this definition seems to pass no sound judgement on the proper and actual function of either of the two, though related, fields of study.

Sperber and Wilson's (1986a; 1987; 1995) definition of pragmatics as "the study of the general cognitive principles and abilities involved in utterance interpretation, and of their cognitive effects" (Wilson and Sperber, 1987: 5) means that utterances may be ambiguous or referentially ambivalent. In other words, the linguistic cohesive markers of speech are hardly adequate for the relevant interpretation of utterances used in isolation. In actual communication, both intra-linguistic and extra-linguistic features are definitely necessary for the appropriate understanding of the speaker's intended meaning in the relevant context of talk. Context in this sense includes all the non-linguistic features that have a bearing on utterance interpretation and understanding. Context, as defined by Sperber and Wilson (1986a; 1995), is a

psychological construct that embraces all beliefs, traditions, ways of life and views of the world of a given speech community as opposed to another. In short, it is this discrepancy in encyclopedic knowledge between different speech communities that induces a mismatch in world views, cultural norms, and ways of communication that, in turn, leads to possible misunderstanding.

On the whole, three distinct positions were taken by different scholars concerned with the study of meaning. One position held that pragmatics should be subsumed under semantics; the second considered each of the two approaches to the study of meaning as two separate, though related, fields of study. The third, however, took a completely different direction from the two preceding positions: it stipulates that, for linguists to account for meaning as intended in actual speech situations, *semantics should be subsumed under pragmatics*.

Other criteria, in addition to situation-dependence, have been the basis for a distinction between semantics and pragmatics. The main criterion in this concern has been the discrimination between what is 'referential' and what is 'inferential' in

language as used in actual human communication. The 'referential' is conceived of as belonging to the domain of semantics, whereas the latter is regarded as constituting the proper domain of pragmatics. Among other things, this can be seen as responsible for the creation of the term 'pragmatic adverbials', taken to designate expressions such as "as a matter of fact", "nevertheless", "hardly", and the like. The 'pragmaticness' of these and similar perfectly conventionalized expressions must reside in the fact that they designate *attitudes* towards the rest of the relevant string (sentence or other), i.e. emotive meaning, and have no referential meaning in the classical sense.

The differentiation between 'referential' and 'inferential' seems to support the third view, i.e. that semantics should be subsumed under pragmatics for the study of meaning in verbal communication. This view takes into consideration the speech situation itself, which is specific to each and every talk between any two interactants, with all its details of time, place, participants involved, the topic discussed, inter-personal relationships, etc. The view also supports the facts of cultural differences and the role of these differences in the

interpretation of meaning in any speech situation. This view of subsuming semantics under pragmatics is particularly important in accounting for meaning in cross-cultural communication. This is so mainly because '*not all that is meant is said*'; this makes inference particularly significant in understanding the communicator's intended meaning without necessarily having all the 'message' linguistically encoded.

A lot of the data collected and interpreted attest to the fact that much of our human knowledge is not necessarily encoded in language. In other words, we can always infer extra layers of meaning that are not explicitly expressed in words. Much of this knowledge is described by Sperber and Wilson (1986a/1995) as encyclopedic; others describe it as 'social knowledge' (Shammas, 1995) or 'pragmatic knowledge' (Blakemore, 1992). This type of knowledge is definitely significant for the understanding and interpretation of utterances. Thus, an expression such as 'Another Watergate in America' cannot mean what is expressed linguistically: it goes much beyond the face-value sense of the utterance; in fact, it means 'a scandal in the White House'. Above all, the literal sense of many linguistic units may not denote the meaning of

an utterance as used in actual reality. If the literal sense of a sentence is its face value, then the pragmatic effect of the utterance used in actual communication could be different. This difference is an incarnation of the discrepancy between the linguistic meaning in isolation and the meaning as intended in social reality. The meaning of an utterance is the product of the use of language and the context, in which verbal communication is placed. This intended meaning is, in short, the pragmatic meaning of utterances; it is the speaker's meaning as expressed in the relevant context. In other words, it is the product of the use of language and the various features of context, i.e. the product of blending both the intra-linguistic and the extra-linguistic factors acting on any speech situation.

Exercise 1: Think of any good examples of something meant, but not said, in both Arabic and English. This means that what is said may denote messages not explicitly expressed in words. You could present examples of short utterances or lengthy conversations in both Arabic & English.

Exercise 2: Which of the three positions mentioned above do you support as far as communication in your native or second

language is concerned? Why? Try to find alternatives, if any. Provide examples from everyday naturally-occurring conversations and different types of talk, whether written or spoken. Discuss in class.

Chapter Two: lexical Semantics

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II. 1 Word Meaning

The word meaning has been, to a large extent, based on the relationships of reference and denotation. However, certainly meaning includes the relations between utterances and parts of utterances (e.g. words) on the one hand and the world outside, on the other; reference and denotation are among such relations. The meaning of a word, therefore, may be considered as the *way it is used* as a part of different utterances.

Nevertheless, the meaning of a sentence is not to be thought of as a sort of summation of the meanings of its component words taken individually. The grammatical structure and certain phonological features, such as intonation may themselves give an indication of parts of the sentence meaning, particularly when we consider the part played in Arabic, English, and many other languages by word form, word order, and intonation in the indication of questioning, commanding, and making statements.

A word such as 'table' used outside context could refer to different meanings as in:

1) She laid the *table* for dinner. And

2) He drew a *table* that included all relevant data.

Even when the term 'table' is used in the sense of the word used in sentence (1), one can shift the focus of meaning to other turns of textual and/or contextual meanings, as in:

3) The various delegations had a round-*table* discussion of all the matters concerned. And

4) The *table* is made of stainless steel and fine wood.

Moreover, with many words, meanings or uses are only found when they are *used in conjunction* with other words, and these are often scarcely deducible from their other uses apart from such combinations: one need only think of such phrases as *cold war*, *feather-weight* (in boxing), *wild-cat strike* (unofficial strike), *red revolution*, etc. (See the section on 'Collocation' below).

Reference and denotation are clearly a part of the meanings of many words in all languages. But the relationship between the word and that to which it may be said to refer is not a simple one. For instance, proper names such as '*Nabeel*, *Pamela*,

Nizar, *Maya*', etc. refer to individuals as single individuals; 'man, woman, boy, girl, etc.' refer to an indefinitely large class of individuals by virtue of their being grouped together in some respect; in the same way, 'climb, fly, swim, and walk' refer to four different types of bodily movement in space.

However, words like "cause and effect" do not refer to things in the same way "table and chair" do. In other words, they do not have the same degree of cohesion. Thus, though the latter words usually accompany each other, the former two are normally inseparable; one leads to the other, i.e. a cause for something induces the effect of that thing or idea being induced thereby.

In other matters, languages differ in the way they tend to organize parts of the speakers' experiences. Thus, words such as 'right, wrong, duty, crime, etc.' refer to a social nexus quite different from one society to another; therefore, the reference of each of these words is different from one culture/nation to another and is usually in line with the social structure and organization of each speech community.

Not only does reference cover a very wide divergence of relationships between words and the bits and pieces of the world, but many words in all languages can scarcely be said to refer to anything by themselves; this should not mean that such words are meaningless; English words such as 'the, if, when, of, seldom, a/an, etc,' are functional, and the function of a word in a larger linguistic unit is definitely a part of the total meaning of that unit.

Consequently, it is not to be assumed that the meaning of a word, when it constitutes a one-word sentence, is the same as its meaning when it forms part of a larger sentence. Thus, for instance, words such as 'yes' and 'no' can represent the meaning of a whole sentence that cannot be analyzed grammatically.

II. 2 Extra-linguistic Context

Clearly the understanding of word and sentence meanings involves intra-linguistic and extra-linguistic factors. Certain semantic functions are learned and understood apart from any specific extra-linguistic context; for example, the implications

of 'regret', 'red', 'brother', etc. are obvious without resort to a specific context for understanding them. But to know how to *use* and understand any of these words, one must know a great deal about human relations and colours in advance. To know when a request such as "Please close the door", a polite request "Would you mind (very much) closing the door?", or an impolite order "Close the door!" would be appropriate requires a considerable knowledge of personal relations and social conventions. Such knowledge is certainly a part of the study of pragmatics; in communication, however, it is impossible to separate semantics from pragmatics.

Meaning in language is therefore not a single relation or a single sort of relation, but involves a set of multiple and various relations holding between the utterance and the relevant features and components, both cultural and physical, and forming part of the more extensive system of interpersonal relations involved in the existence of human societies.

Thus, the nonlinguistic features may include the place and time of the utterance, and each of these features must have a

bearing on the utterance meaning. For instance, using an apparently simple utterance such as:

5) It is three o'clock.

could be interpreted as either 'telling the time', 'reminding the lecturer of the beginning or end of a lecture', or even 'reproaching somebody for being late for an agreed-upon meeting', and so on and so forth (see Blass, 1986; Blakemore, 1992, among others). In short, *the more contexts one can envisage or create for the interpretation of an utterance, the more meanings of that utterance one can infer.*

II. 3 The Semantic Status of the Morpheme

Some linguists have claimed that the morpheme should be regarded not only as the *minimal grammatical unit* but also as the minimal *meaningful* unit of language. This is obviously an interesting point of view. With most English plurals and verbal past tense forms, it is both possible and highly informative to ascribe a meaning or one of several meanings to specific morphemes.

However, some questions arise over any attempt to define the

meaning of root morphemes such as '-ceive', '-cur' and '-tain' in words like "receive, deceive, conceive; recur, incur; and retain, detain, contain,". It could be economical to regard such words as poly-morphemic; but it is not known to us whether such final morphemes in the words above had separate meanings at any stage of the English language history of development. Consequently, one can say, and with some confidence, that some morphemes do have meaning(s); but it is not clear that others do.

II. 4 The Sentence Meaning

The meaning of a sentence is not limited to the meanings of the individual words composing it, nor is it confined by its grammatical structure. Different intonations may signal excitement, irritation, anger, friendliness, social distance, and many other feelings and personal relations, as well as the more formalized differences between statement and question. The grammatical categories of declarative (indicative), interrogative, and imperative have a partial correlation with the semantic categories of statement, inquiry, and command (request, prohibition, etc.), but with some reservations.

Although syntax may help to indicate the lexical content of a sentence in English, it may not always do so in other languages such as Arabic and Latin, of which syntactic flexibility is a distinctive feature. Thus, we recognize the meaning of an Arabic sentence such as

6) "*Yuhibbu allahu-l mu'mineena*" يحبّ الله المؤمنين:

through the *forms*, (i.e. the morphology) of the words rather than the *word order* (i.e. the syntactic structure) of the sentence; the meaning remains the same even if we change the word order of the same sentence: "*Allahu yuhibbu-l mu'mineena*". At the same time, to denote the same meaning of the sentence above in English, we have only one syntactic choice: "God loves His believers". Above all, the meaning of a sentence as intended in a given speech situation is not limited to its lexical content or grammatical structure; the context of using a sentence has a decisive role in determining its meaning as intended by a certain communicator in a particular speech situation.

II. 5 Translation & Meaning

Translation between two languages is possible, but usually difficult; translation is not an automatic conversion process except in specifically restricted contexts (e.g. weather reports, flight control messages, etc.).

Questions of translation are very closely connected with semantic analysis and the contextual theory of meaning. Context, in its broad sense, includes cultural differences and their role in encoding and decoding meaning as intended in verbal communication. Culture, in this sense, includes all norms of linguistic behaviour and use in addition to the relevant context of talk; it embodies all social conventions, beliefs, and ways of expression. According to Malinowski (1923/1935), translation implies '*the unification of cultural context*'. This is apparent when one considers the sort of words in other languages that are relatively easy to translate into English and those that are not. Translation and mutual understanding across cultural frontiers are not impossible; but much hard work is required in making clear what factors are involved in the understanding and interpreting of what is said or written. Terms like 'freedom, democracy, equality, etc.'

can be quite difficult to translate from one language into another, simply because of the different connotations and uses of such terms in different cultures and languages. The term 'liberal' for instance, has a negative implication in South Africa because of its association with the colonizer that boasted to have come from a *liberal* nation.

More difficult, though, are words that are culture-specific and language-specific such as religious terms, greetings, condolences, compliments, and the like in Arabic (see Shammas, 2005). Thus, in translating a text from one language into another, one should be aware of the sentence structure, the semantic content, the context of situation, and the cultural factors involved in stating or implying what is meant.

Chapter Three: Other Linguistic Relations & Meaning


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III. 1 Introduction

We have so far studied the meaning of the basic units of language, i.e. the morpheme, the word, and the sentence. Now, more emphasis will be placed on other units that produce meanings different from that of these basic units. One of the most important of these unit is the *association* of two or more words together for the production of meaning other than that of the basic units composing each word association. This association is technically called *collocation* studied below. Moreover, idioms form another such kind of linguistic units, the meaning of which is normally different from that of the elements composing each idiom.

III. 2 Collocation

Collocation simply means the association of a word in a language with other particular words in sentences. Collocation is then different from syntax in that the latter is subject to grammatical analysis, whereas the former is not. In syntax, the words are members of classes joined together by means of rules not applicable to word association. Thus, 'dark' associates with 'night' because, according to Firth (1935),

"one of the meanings of 'night' is its collocability with 'dark', and of 'dark', of course, its collocability with 'night'". Collocations such as these are related to the referential and situational meanings of the words concerned. In some other cases, collocations are *habitual* but less closely connected with extra-linguistic reference. Thus, "white coffee, white wine, white race" all have a range of situational reference, but apart from the collocation of the particular second word in each pair, the word 'white' would not, in most utterances, be used with reference to the colours of the referents. Think of the meaning of "white lie". Similar collocations in English involving colour words, but further removed from reference to actual colour surfaces, are "green with jealousy, red revolution, red herring", etc.

On the other hand, words such as "the, if, when", etc. are hardly subject to any collocational restrictions and are found in almost any lexical company in the language that the grammar permits. Collocational ranges are unlike grammatical classes in 'that they are peculiar to each word, whereas grammatical classes may each contain many different words as members. Collocations are far more personally variable

among speakers of a single dialect within a language than are grammatical classes.

Collocations are also dependent on the situation of talk and the 'degree of the precision of the style'. Stylistically, for instance, John Locke disfavours the likely collocation between 'free' and 'will' although this collocation is used in everyday speech. Situationally, consider the connotation of "He's a *proper* rascal" and "that's a very *proper* observation", on the one hand and "We've had a *nice* time today" and "We have a *nice* point to decide", on the other.

Special cases of collocation are what 'is called 'idioms' and *cliches*. 'Idiom' is used to refer to habitual collocations of more than one word, that tend to be used together, with a semantic function not readily deducible from the other uses of the component words apart from each other. Think of some idioms in both Arabic and English. Finally, one can add that *proverbs* form an essential body of idioms that have a socio-historical origin, express different social implications and stem from historical and rather sophisticated incidents expressing the socio-economic development of a given speech

community. Think of the implications of this proverb in Arabic, for instance:

قطعت جهيزة قول كلّ خطيب.

The important point here is that the proverb above is a completely frozen utterance that has a historical basis, a social connotation, and a fixed linguistic form, in addition to its reference to the character of a particular speech community at a particular stage of historical development.

Word meaning is not only its referential relation to an entity in the world; it also includes the sense relations with other words in the structure containing it. Thus, knowing the individual meaning of a word is not enough. A word meaning can best be understood in relation to the meanings of the other word(s) accompanying it in larger structures, such as phrases and sentences.

When a word is put with another one, the two words form a kind of *collocation* that has a special meaning which may or may not be the same as the meaning of its individual constituents. Thus, knowing the meaning arising from word collocation or combination is very important in

comprehending the whole meaning of any linguistic entity larger than a word. This idea is highlighted in Jackson (1988). Jackson defines collocation as follows: '*Collocation refers to the combination of words that have a certain mutual expectancy.*' The word 'expectancy' here may indicate the unconscious frequent way in which words are used together; that is to say, when a certain word is heard, all the words that often accompany it will instantly come to mind. Thus any group of words that can be put together to express a certain meaning is regarded as collocation. He gives examples such as, *false eye*, *noses*, *beard*, or *expectation*.

Jackson (ibid.) goes even further to say that collocations a lexeme regularly enters is a factor that needs to be taken account of in the description of its meaning. J. K. Firth (1890-1960) once said '*You shall know a word by the company it keeps*'. This is certainly true because, as mentioned above, knowing a word meaning in isolation without relating it to the meaning of other words neighboring it is not enough. Therefore, when we say *a false tooth,* then, (see Firth 1935; Jackson, 1988), part of the meaning *of false* is the fact that it can regularly be found in company with *tooth,* and part of the

meaning of *tooth* is that it can regularly collocate with *false*. Moreover, different collocations may lend different meanings to a lexeme. For example, the words *bank* and *draw* have certain meanings when accompanied with *river* in 'He sat at the bank of a *river* and began to *draw a picture'*, and a completely different meaning when accompanied with *money* in 'He went to the *bank to* (with)*draw some money.*'

The same point is exemplified by Jackson in the following example of different meanings arising from different collocations of the word *strong*. Considering the following collocations, *a strong woman*, *a strong door*, *a strong tea*, *a strong personality*, will lead us to different meanings of 'strong' stated as follows:

In *a strong woman*, as explained above, the word *strong* refers to physical strength and the ability to perform actions requiring physical strength. In *a strong door*, the reference is also to physical strength in the sense that a strong door is one that is not easily broken down. In *strong tea*, however, the reference is to the intensity of the flavor and the darker color of tea. Finally, in *a strong personality*, the strength is rather

moral and implies that the person is influential and persuasive.

What Jackson wants to say here is that the different meanings of *strength* come from the different collocations of the word *strong* in the way that the meaning of the other words in these phrases affect and determine that of *strong*. Thus, collocation plays an important role in studying the meanings of words.

Every word has its collocational range, i.e. a number of words that can collocate with it. Words vary in this collocational range, so that some have a wide range as the adjective *good* which can be collocated with a large number of different words. Other words have a very limited number of words that can often associate with them (collocational restriction) such as the word *shrug* which can be associated almost only with *shoulder*. An example clarifying this point is the following:
7) I asked him if he wanted to go there, but he only shrugged his shoulders.

Only a limited number of words can associate with the word *hiss* in the sentence *'The .... is hissing'*. Jackson (ibid.) mentions three groups of nouns that regularly combine as

subject with *hiss;* living creatures especially *snake* and *cat,* collections of people, e.g. *audience, crowd,* and cooking utensils that emit steam with a hissing sound such as *kettle* and *pressure cooker.* And the same sound is being referred to in all cases. However, the collocational range of any word can be extended especially in poetry and metaphorical language such as metaphors and similes.

In the second part of Jackson's definition of collocation, he says, '*The combination is not a fixed expression,* but there is a greater than a chance likelihood that words *will* occur'. Notice that Jackson excludes fixed expressions from being collocations. We know that by definition, a fixed expression is a group of words that are always used together in a way that they can hardly be changed in form and structure. Thus, I cannot see any reason for not regarding such expressions as examples of collocation, because they simply correspond to the definition of collocation *'Any group of words that are often used together for non-literal meaning*'. Therefore, idioms like *break the news; turn the other cheek*; *affect ignorance*; *a babe in arms*; proverbs like *Think before you leap*; *Set a thief to catch a thief*; *When in Rome, do as the*

Romans do, and clichés such as *Serve yourself*; *God bless you*; *Take good care*; *Nice to see you*, and many other examples of these frequent expressions in English might be regarded as special kinds of collocation where the expectancy (in Jackson's terms) has become fixed. Those expressions are very important to be learnt by English students especially at advanced levels where a learner's language gradually approaches the native speaker's English. So, by classifying them as collocations, students will be aware of their importance in developing English learning as a foreign language.

To sum up, we have seen a partly different point of view concerning the defining of collocation, but generally it is agreed by many linguists and language researchers that collocation is the usual association of two words or more in one linguistic unit to express a certain meaning. In spite of the different opinions among linguists as to whether to consider fixed expressions as collocations or not, it is a good idea to classify such expressions as special cases of collocations, where we find ourselves in front of unchangeable structures of words that are always put and used together in a habitual way.

III. 3 Types of Collocation

Learners who know a large number of English words such as nouns, verbs, adverbs, adjectives and prepositions, have to know how to use these words together to form acceptable English expressions. There are common patterns of collocations which form an important part of English. By paying attention and being aware of these collocations, will be able to communicate successfully in English and this is because of its importance in English. Following some linguists and language researchers (e.g. Hill, 2000; Shammas, 1998; Williams, 2003), I intend to introduce English collocation patterns in almost the same way. Thus, English collocations can be classified into these major types and sub-types or sub-categories.

III. 3. 1 Noun-Verb Collocations

Every noun can be followed by a limited number of verbs; that is, every other verb which doesn't belong to them will sound incorrect to an English native speaker. For example, '*an accident*' can 'happen, occur, take place and 'a *fire*' can 'glow, Burn, Flicker, die down, Crackle, out-break, out-

spread,' and so on.

On the other hand, *Aggression* mounts, builds up, abates. *Anger* flares up, mounts, abates. An *argument* develops, takes place, is settled, is resolved. An *attempt* fails, succeeds. A *battle* Rages. *Darkness* Falls. The *Sun* rises, sets. A *disease* Spreads.

A *habit* forms, grows or catches. *Hopes* build up or die. *Efforts* fail, succeed, increase. *Friendship* develops, grows, strengthens, cools down or cools off.

An *idea* Occurs to someone, is conceived, develops, matures. An *incident* Occurs. *Knowledge* spreads, is imparted. *Problems* Crop up, arise, present themselves. *Laughter* is stifled, breaks out.

However, it is difficult to include all the verbs that fit after every individual noun.

III. 3. 2 Verb-Noun Collocations

Like nouns, verbs have the selective characteristic of what should follow them. Therefore, a specific verb in English can be followed by a limited number of nouns. For example: '*to acquire*' can be followed by 'knowledge, a taste, an accent, a language' and 'to *call*' is usually followed by 'a doctor, a taxi, a meeting, a strike, someone's attention'. Thus, by just hearing a verb, all the nouns that often collocate with it will come to mind.

Other examples of this type are:

To *adopt* A child, a plan, an idea, new measures. To *ask* A question, permission, the way, the time, the price of something, or a favor of someone. To *attend* a lecture, a meeting, school, church. To *bear* a burden, arms, responsibility, punishment, cold, heat, witness to, a grudge, the cost. To *carry* A burden, a weapon, news, a message, a cause, one's colors. To *desert* a friend, a wife, a country, a cause, one's colors. To *drive* a car, a cattle, a bargain, or someone mad. To *enter* A trade, profession, the army, a school, or the church. To *follow* An example, someone's example, a principle, an ideal, a leader, a guide, the road, the

fashion, or a trade. To *formulate* ideas, thoughts, or a doctrine. To *grow* flowers, vegetables, or a beard. To *hold* an opinion, a view, a post, an appointment, a position, an examination, a meeting, a council, a parliament, a party, a reception, or one's breath.

To *keep* A secret, a row, a promise, faith, silence, the peace, guard, watch, a fast, or a festival. To *light* A cigarette, a lamp, or a fire. To *make* a speech, a suggestion, a proposal, a promise, arrangement, a statement, a noise, a disturbance, a will, a record, a copy, a sketch, an outline, a complaint, a charge, an effort, an experiment, an appointment, a road, a canal, a dress, a meal, music, friends, progress, terms, peace, or war.

To *pay* a bill, debts, tax, money, attention, Compliments, a visit. To *resist* temptation, an attack, the enemy, authority, heat. To *seize* the chance, opportunity, a table, a trap, a broken limb, an example, a clock, the fashion, or one's hair. To *set* the sail, the scene, or a price. To *tell* a story, a joke, a lie, the truth, a tale, or the fortune.

III. 3. 3. Adjective-Noun Collocations

Again, only a limited number of nouns can occur with a specific adjective according to its meaning and restrictions of use. For example: 'tall' can occur with 'man, tree, or building'. 'long' can occur with 'way, hair, time, distance, or face'. Thus, every specific adjective permits a limited group of nouns that can follow it. Other examples of similar collocations are:

Square Meal, tower, corner, or jaw; *grim* news, smile, day, book, death, or determination; *unique* Position or knowledge; *forbidden* degrees, fruit, ground, or city; *Foreign* language, travel, products, stamps, experience, countries, affairs, body, or aid.

III. 3. 4. Adverb-Verb Collocations

Adverbs are often used in a final position of the sentence, i.e. at the end of the sentence, but if we need to add a special kind of impression or emphasize action of the verb, we put the adverb at its beginning, as in '*strongly* suggest' and '*barely* see'.

These forms are usually used to focus on facts especially in reports, articles and fiction. Other examples are: *thoroughly* plan; *hardly* speak or move; *deliberately* take, attempt or say.

III. 3. 5. Adverb-Adjective Collocations

These are combinations other than those of *adverb-verb* ones. But to some extent, they are less frequent types. Such collocations are also used to emphasize purposes, or when we tend to add a strong feeling or special kind of behavior to the adjective in question. Thus, '*totally* unacceptable', '*totally* different', '*extremely* odd', and '*completely* useless' are all examples of this type of collocations. Other examples are: *utterly* amazed, or mad; *unusually* fond; *completely* successful; *deliberately* planned, or taken; *hardly* heard, spoken, loved; *barely* furnished, or noticed.

III. 3. 6 Verb-Preposition Collocation

Another possible area of collocation is that of a verb and a preposition, as in:

Struggle for Give to/for

Lose in	Succeed in
Fail at	Pay for/to
Look after	Look over
Make off	Make out
Put on/off	Run across/about
Set up/about/for	Take off/over
Turn away/back	Turn round/up

III. 3. 7 Phrasal Verbs

Some verbs need to be followed by special prepositions, such as 'look at', 'settle in', and 'depend on'. Such verbs can also have more idiomatic meaning when followed by other prepositions and adverbial articles. Those are called '***phrasal-verbs***', whose meaning is different from the meaning of the separate constituents of verbs and prepositions.

Examples of verbs followed by specific prepositions are:

Argue with	Borrow from
To be of/in	Lend to
Fear of	Talk/to
Blame for	Lay on/against

Owe to	Throw against
Adhere to	Lean over/against

Other examples of phrasal verbs are:

Be after	Do without
Be down	Fall over
Be up/	Fall on/upon
Bring out	Get back
Break into	Give away
Call off	Go on
Call on	Go up
Carry out	Have on
Carry on	Hold out
Keep on	

English adjectives are also famous for their collocating with prepositions; that is, every adjective can be followed by one or more prepositions to form a new meaning. Thus, we find expressions such as: 'absorbed in', 'according to', 'clothed in' and 'born in' and many other examples.

Here are some more of such expressions:

Accompanied by	Accurate in
Based on	Beloved of
Busy at/ with	Close to
Comparable to/ with	Contrary to
Dependent on	Delighted with
Envious of	Aware of
Accustomed to	Ashamed of
Astonished at	Bound for/to
Clear of	Common to
Corresponding to	Devoid of
Deprived of	Equal to
Good at	Impressed by
Mad with	Natural to
Opposite to	Popular with
Quick at	Thankful to
Useful to	Worthy of

III. 3. 8 Noun-Noun Collocations

These collocations are sometimes called 'compound nouns'. They are very common in English, and new combinations are born almost daily. They normally have two parts. The second

part identifies the object or person in question (*university, holiday, centre, man, friend, room, school, dictionary*). The first part defines the second and give specific information that tells what kind of object or person it is, or what its place, time, or purpose is referred to (*Damascus, summer, city, police, boy, girl, living, collocation*).

The two parts may be written in a number of ways:

A. As one word, such as:

policeman, boyfriend, drugstore, raincoat, football, bedroom, motorcycle, notebook, keyboard, butterfly, airport, weekend, graveyard, shopkeeper, shoemaker, baseball, etc.

B. As two words joined with a hyphen

Examples are: living-room, sitting-room, dining-table, wind-surfing, stamp-collecting, weight-lifting, TV-watching, dish-washing, horse-riding, diving-board, sea-testing, etc.

C. As two separate words

Examples: Air Force, water tank, collocation dictionary, fire engine, language site, peanut butter, train station, police office, post office, river bank, hall door, London Airport,

winter clothes, corner shop, departments tore, shopping list, swimming pool, college library, spring flowers, oil lamp, golf club, etc.

Some words cannot be used in any of the above ways; instead, they need a preposition to be joined as in, (*brother-in-law, mother-in-law, master-at-arms*) and as in those denoting quantity, such as (*a cup of tea, a bar of soap, a box of tissues, a tin of tuna fish, a slice of meat*); some others need the possessive apostrophe between them, as in (*friend's house, children's friends, teachers' books*).

However, there are no clear rules about how these compound words are exactly written, so they can be learnt as they are often found.

In addition to the above-mentioned main categories of English collocations, there are certain groups of words to which learners should pay attention, because they are always used together as units of almost fixed structures that cannot be changed in either *form* or *word order*. These groups are sometimes called 'prefabricated expressions' or 'language

clichés' because they are ready-made expressions rating from two-word-expressions to a whole sentence, and they are always used together to give a special meaning, or to serve a special purpose in a specific speech situation. Most of them are metaphorical and idiomatic and do not necessarily mean the same as the combination of their individual constituents. Besides, they are nearly limited in number and can be learnt, especially if well-understood in relation to context.

Such expressions, because they often combine two or more of the above main types, will be regarded as sub-categories of collocation.

III. 3. 9 Idioms

An idiom is a special collocation between two or more words. It has a special meaning that is different from that of the words composing it when taken individually. Thus, the meaning of an idiom cannot normally be guessed by combining the meaning of its constituents; instead, it can be known by checking a book of idioms or looking up in a dictionary that contains an explanation of idioms. A large

number of English idioms consist of combinations of noun and adjective, and those ones are short and easy to grasp, e.g. (*a bad apple, a piece of cake, a cold feat, a cold turkey and a couch potato*), but some idioms are of a longer structure that sometimes may not be grammatically correct such as (*I am good friends with him*), in which there is a clear deviation of agreement rules.

Here are some examples of English idioms of different structures:

To break into the bank	A blot on the landscape
Jump on the band-wagon	A fly in the ointment
To eat one's words	A hard nut to crack
To bandy words with	A pig in a poke
To break the news	Under the banner of
To fight a losing battle	Red herring
To cross swords with someone	An open secret
To kill the fatted calf	A bad egg
To turn the other cheek	A babe in arms
To take the bull by the horns	A soft soap
To affect ignorance	A dead lock
To beat the air	A close shave

Blow one's own trumpet

To be a stumbling-block

To bear the brunt of attack

To be out of bounds

To do something in cold blood

To be in the same boat

Hit the nail on the head

To fall in love

To hit the ceiling

To have the trump card

Feel like a fish out of water

To let the grass grow under one's feet

To get up on the wrong side of the bed

To be glued to something

To raise an eyebrow

To give someone a hand

To hold one's horses

A red rag to a bull

Not hold water

A rough and ready method

A mouthpiece

Once in a blue moon

Out of the blue

Out of the frying pan into the fire

Rain cats and dogs

The tip of the iceberg

Time will tell

A bad taste in one's mouth

A babe in the woods

A big wheel

A bit at sea

A common thread

A contract out on

A crash course

To hit the sack	A double-edged sword
To be in a pickled heel	A golden opportunity
Many hands make light work	Think before you leap
Too many cooks spoil the broth	Opportunity knocks but once
A friend in need is a friend indeed	Set a thief to catch a thief
Don't meet trouble halfway	Walls have ears
Don't put all your eggs in one basket	Live and let live
Empty vessels make most noise	Two sides of the same coin
When in Rome, do as the Romans do	Opposites attract
There is no smoke without fire	Clothes make the man
Birds of a feather flock together	Bad news travels fast
All good things come to those who wait	Time and tide wait for no man
Half a loaf is better than no bread	Doubt is the beginning of wisdom

To keep an eye on someone/something

III. 3. 10 Proverbs

Another sub-category of collocations is that of '*proverbs*'. In English, as in any other language, there are common traditional sayings of metaphorical meaning which reflect the beliefs, traditions, morals, norms and social conduct. These sayings are called '**proverbs**'. They are culture-specific and related to the life-experience and history of the speech community in question. These proverbs can be used in many speech situations as a short way to express special kinds of feelings, ideas, similes, comments, and pieces of advice. Such sayings are both easy and interesting to learn especially if they have equivalents in Arabic. Examples of common English proverbs are:

A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.

Absence make the heart grow fonder.

Out of sight, out of mind.

Wise men think alike.

Once bitten, twice shy.

Nothing venture, nothing gain.

Fools seldom differ.

Every cloud has a silver lining.

It never rains, but it pours.

More haste, less speed.

Still waters run deep.

When the cat's away, the mice play.

The best things in life are free.

A stitch in time saves nine.

He teaches ill, who teaches all.

You can't take it with you when you die.

Better untaught than ill-taught.

Soon learnt, soon forgotten.

Where there is a will, there is a way.

One tongue is enough for a woman.

You can't tell a book by its cover.

No news is good news.

If the stone fell upon the egg, alas for the egg; and if the egg fell upon the stone, alas for the egg.

People who live in glass houses should not throw stones.

Lightning never strikes twice in the same place.

There's many a slip between the cup and the lip.

Don't count your chickens until they are hatched.

You can't make a silk purse out of a sow's ear.

What is bred in the bone will come out in the flesh.

You must cut your coat according to your cloth.

As you make your bed, so you must lie in it.

Better the devil you know than the devil you don't.

If a thing is worth doing, it is worth doing well.

You can't make an omelet without breaking eggs.

You may lead a horse to water, but you can't make him drink.

III. 4 Lingua-pragmatic Expressions

The third sub-category of special collocations contains some fixed linguistic expressions used at specific speech situations where a speaker finds himself having a limited number of choices, i.e. expressions that sound correct and natural to an English native speaker. These expressions have a great pragmatic value in the social context, and they can be classified according to the occasions or situations requiring them as in *greetings*, *thanking* and *gratitude*, *condolences*, *apologizing*, etc. For example, to a person who says 'Thank you!', you can only say 'You're welcome!', 'Don't mention it!', 'It's a pleasure' or 'Not at all'.

Other examples of these expressions are the following (They are arranged randomly):

All right! Nice to see you! It's most kind of you. How do you do? Very well, thank you. Fine, thank you, and you?

Won't you sit down. Feel at home. Serve yourself Do sit down. I'm delighted to see you. How are you? See you later. All the best. God bless you. Keep it up! Put your back into it! Very much so. Take good care. Don't worry'! Try again! Never mind! Not the end of the world. Sorry to hear about that. I'm sorry! Take it easy! I'm grateful!

There are also many other linguistic expressions frequently used in English for other functions, such as the following:

at any rate; sooner or later; and vice versa; to and fro; from time to time; once upon a time; once in a while; now and then; so far; and so on; at that time; I can't but . . .; to some extent; there is no need to; at the expense of; in the presence of; face to face; in view of; etc.

In addition, there are many famous quotations of well-known people such as *prophets*, *poets*, *scientists*, *politicians* and social *leaders*. For example, who can forget Jesus Christ's words '*This is my blood, drink it*'. or Shakespeare's '*To be or not to be, that is the question*' or Darwin's '*Survival for the fittest*'? All of these expressions are frequently used in English

and form a fixed kind of collocation.

Thus, all the above-mentioned types and sub-types of English collocation together make an important part of idiomatic and metaphorical English; by paying attention to and getting familiar with as many of these collocations as possible, even advanced Arab learners of English will certainly develop their competence of vocabulary use in all aspects of language production and reception. For a more detailed study of these lingua-pragmatic expressions, their use and translatability, see Shammas (2005b).


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Chapter Four: Other Characteristics of Meaning


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IV. 1 Introduction

In this section, we shall be looking at some relations between words that are of a semi-logical kind, those that are, on a narrow interpretation, 'sense' relations. Semantic concepts such as 'hyponymy', synonymy', 'antonymy', 'relational opposites', and 'components' will be discussed. In addition, the problem of 'universals' will be tackled in brief.

IV. 2 Sense-Relations

Sense-relations are usually studied under what is termed "The Componential Approach to Meaning". In principle, this approach is based on the assumption that it provides us "**with a systematic and economical means of presenting the sense-relations that hold among lexemes in particular languages and, on the assumption that the components are universal, across languages**" **(Lyons, 1981: 82).** Let us take a few well-known examples of 'man', 'woman', 'boy', 'girl', etc. and see if their sense-relations are universal, through studying these relations in two natural languages, i.e. Arabic and English. Following the conventions usually used in standard propositional logic, we have these equations for the sense-relations of the above

lexemes in English:

1) 'man'= + HUMAN + MALE + ADULT

2)'woman'= +HUMAN + FEMALE + ADULT

3) 'boy'= +HUMAN + MALE + -ADULT

4) 'girl'= +HUMAN + FEMALE + -ADULT

This clearly shows that a 'man' is a male, adult, human being; a 'woman' is a female, adult, human being; a 'boy' is a male human, but not an adult, etc. Now, attempting to make such equations for the same lexemes, but in Arabic, we have the following in the same order:

5) *rajol* = +HUMAN + MALE + ADULT

6) *imra'a* = + HUMAN + FEMALE + ADULT + (MARRIED)

7) *sabi* = +HUMAN + MALE + -ADULT

8) *bint* = +HUMAN + FEMALE + SINGLE + (/- ADULT)

Even if we ignore some relatively basic (but culturally and sub-culturally extremely essential) sense-relations such as MANLIHOOD and AUTHORITY in 'man', for instance, we still have basically different sense-relations, at least for 'girl'

and 'woman' in English and their equivalents in Arabic. Note, in particular, that '*bint*' not only refers to SINGLE, but it could also be an ADULT or NON-ADULT. Another significant observation is that the most basic sense-relation of '*bint*' is SINGLE and consequently VIRGIN (HUMAN and FEMALE being taken for granted). This shows that though the study of the 'sense-relations' of words can be useful for the interpretation of the semantic meaning of words, such sense-relations of the equivalent words in another language are not necessarily the same.

IV. 3 Hyponymy

There are words that refer to class membership in each language, i.e. that some words are included in terms of meaning under others; such words are called hyponyms. Thus, 'hyponymy' involves us in the notion of *inclusion* in the sense that 'tulip' and 'rose' are included in 'flower', and 'lion' and 'elephant' in mammal'. Similarly, 'scarlet' and 'crimson' are included in 'red'. Inclusion is thus a matter of *class membership*. The 'upper' term is the *super-ordinate* and the 'lower' term is the HYPONYM or the *subordinate*.

However, languages differ in the availability of hyponyms in them. For instance, there is in Classical Greek a super-ordinate term that covers a variety of professions and crafts (carpenter, doctor flute-player, helmsman, shoemaker, etc., but none in English. The same term may also appear in several places in the hierarchy. Thus, 'animal' may be used (1) in contrast with 'vegetable' to include "birds, fishes, insects" as well as 'mammals', (2) in the sense of 'mammals' to contrast with birds, fishes, and insects, to include both humans and beasts, and (3) in the sense of 'beast' to contrast with 'human'. Above all, such class-membership terms may often have different ranges of meanings and uses cross-culturally. Try to compare such terms in English with equivalent terms in Arabic.

Finally, hyponymy involves entailment. Thus, to say 'This is a tulip" entails "This is a flower", and "This is scarlet" entails "This is red". However, this does not mean that both 'tulip' and 'flower', for instance, are co-hyponyms of each other or of 'plant'. We need further to specify that 'flower' is an immediate hyponym of 'plant', and 'tulip' is an immediate hyponym of 'flower'.

IV. 4 Hyponymy and incompatibility

Hyponymy and incompatibility are the most fundamental paradigmatic relations of sense, in terms of which the vocabulary is structured. The term 'hyponymy' is not part of the traditional stock of the semanticist; it is of recent creation by analogy with 'synonymy' and 'antonymy'. Although the term may be new, the notion of hyponymy is traditional enough, and it has been recognized as one of the constitutive principles in the organization of the vocabulary of all languages. For example, the meaning of 'scarlet' is said to be included in the meaning of 'red'.

This relationship, the inclusion of a more specific term in a more general term, has been formalized by certain semanticists in terms of the logic of classes from one point of view: a more general term is more 'inclusive' than a more specific term. Thus, 'flower' is more inclusive than 'tulip' since it refers to a wider class of things. But from another point of view, the more specific term can be more 'inclusive': 'tulip' is more inclusive than 'flower' in the sense it carries more 'bits' of information, more components of meaning. Hyponymy may be defined in terms of unilateral implication.

For instance, *X is scarlet* will be taken to imply *X is red*; but the converse implication does not generally hold. In the most typical instances, a sentence containing a super-ordinate term will imply either:

1. the disjunction of sentences each containing a different member of a set of co-hyponyms or
2. a sentence in which the co-hyponyms are semantically coordinated, as it were.

Think of similar hyponyms of 'lower' and 'super-ordinate' status in Arabic; compare them with English equivalents.

IV. 5 Synonymy

IV. 5. 1 Types of Synonymy

Synonymy is used to mean *"sameness* of meaning". Because of borrowing, English is considered to be a rich language in synonyms. English is basically an Anglo-Saxon language, and it has borrowed many words from French, Latin, Greek, and many other languages (e.g. Arabic). Thus, it is true that there are pairs of native and 'foreign' words. For example, we have 'brotherly' and 'fraternal'; 'buy' and 'purchase'; 'world' and

'universe'; etc.

However, it can be maintained that there are no real synonyms, that no two words have exactly the same meaning. Synonyms can be seen to differ in five ways. First, some sets of synonyms belong to different dialects of the language. For instance, in the United States, the word 'fall' is used whereas the term 'autumn' is used mainly in Western Britain. But such words and their differences are of no real interest for semantics. They have the same translation equivalents in foreign languages.

Secondly, synonymous words may differ in terms of style and the degree of formality. Examples of such synonyms are "gentleman, man, and chap"; "pass away, die, and pop off": These are more difficult to deal with because there is a far less clear distinction between the styles than between the geographically defined dialects.

Thirdly, some words may be said to differ only in their emotive or evaluative meanings. In other words, some terms express a pleasant attitude to some people, whereas other

speakers, especially in politics, choose other terms of the same meaning to express the same concept or attitude. For example, the term 'liberal' is a 'good' word in Britain, but it is a 'bad' one in South Africa and in some political circles in America. This is because of colonization and the fact that the so-called 'liberal' had practised tyranny against those who wanted 'freedom' for their countries and peoples.

Fourthly, some words are collocationally restricted, i.e. they occur only in conjunction with other words. Thus, 'rancid' occurs with 'bacon' or 'butter'; 'addled' with 'eggs' or 'brains'.

Fifthly, many words are close in meaning, or their meanings overlap. This is the kind of synonymy that is exploited by the dictionary-maker. For 'mature', for instance, possible synonyms are "adult, ripe, perfect, due". Dictionaries, unfortunately, tell us little about the precise connections between words and their defining synonyms or between the synonyms themselves. True or total synonyms are mutually interchangeable in all their environments. Therefore, one good test of synonymy is ***substitution*** but in the same context of

use. For instance, notice that 'deep' and 'profound' can be used with 'sympathy', but only 'deep' with 'water'.

One may distinguish a stricter and a looser interpretation of the term *synonymy*. According to the stricter interpretation (which is the one most commonly found in contemporary semantic theory), two items are synonymous if they have the same sense; the looser interpretation may be illustrated by means of a quotation from Roget's Thesaurus: "Suppose we take the word 'nice'. Under it we will see various synonyms representing different shades of meaning of the word 'nice'. The synonyms given for 'nice' are *savory*, *exact*, *discriminative*, *good*, *honorable*, etc. All these words and expressions are synonymous with 'nice' under the looser interpretation of the notion of synonymy.

IV. 5. 2 Proposals of the quantification of synonymy

It is suggested that synonymy is a matter of degree; that any set of lexical items can be arranged on a scale of similarity and difference of sense, so that, for example A and B might be shown to be identical in sense (strictly synonymous) A and C relatively similar in sense (loosely synonymous), A and D less

similar in sense and so on. In short, there is no obvious way of deriving the various sense-relations which are known to be of importance in the organization of the vocabulary from a measure of one relative 'synonymy'.

IV. 5. 3 Total Synonymy and Complete Synonymy

It is a widely held view that there are few, if any, 'real' synonyms in natural languages. To quote Ullman: "it is almost a truism that total synonymy is an extremely rare occurrence, a luxury that language cannot afford". As argued by Ullman, this view rests upon two quite distinct criteria: 'only those words can be described as synonymous which can replace each other in any given context without the slightest change either in cognitive or emotive import'. Therefore, the two conditions for 'total synonymy' are:

1. interchangeability in all contexts, and
2. identity in both cognitive and emotive import.

The condition of interchangeability in all contexts reflects the common assumption that words are never synonymous in any context unless they can occur (and have the same sense) in all contexts.

IV. 5. 4 Synonymy as symmetrical hyponymy

Although a super-ordinate term does not generally imply it is a hyponym, it is frequently the case that the situational context or the syntagmatic modification of the super-ordinate term will determine it in the sense of one of its hyponyms, it suggests the possibility of defining the relationship of synonymy as symmetrical hyponymy: If (X) is a hyponym of (Y) and if Y is also a hyponym of X, then X and Y are synonyms.

All hyponyms are transitive, in the sense that if the relation holds between ***a*** and ***b*** and also between ***b*** and ***c***, then it also holds ***a*** and ***c***. Synonymy, as a special case of hyponymy, has therefore the additional property that it is a symmetrical relation (it holds between ***a*** and ***b*** and between ***b*** and ***a***). And for purely formal reasons, it may be defined also as reflexive: every lexical item is substitutable for, and is synonymous with, itself in the same context. Synonymy is therefore an equivalence-relation in the mathematical sense of this term.

IV. 5. 5 Absence of Super-ordinate Terms

The main point to be made about the relation of hyponymy as

it is found in natural languages is that it does not operate as comprehensively or as systematically there as it does in the various systems of scientific taxonomy (in botany, zoology, etc). The vocabularies of natural languages tend to have many gaps, asymmetries and indeterminacies in them. For instance, there is no super-ordinate term in English of which all the color-words are co-hyponyms. Logicians cite as an example of analytic implication that if it is red, then it is colored.

IV. 6 Antonymy

The relation to which we are giving the name 'antoymy' may be exemplified by the terms *big* and *small* in English; it is characteristic of antonyms of this class that they are regularly gradable.

The comparison may be explicit or implicit; explicitly comparative sentences fall into different types to refer to things that may be compared with respect to a particular property and this property predicates the one of a greater degree than it is of the other, e.g. 'our house is bigger than yours' states that the thing may by compared with respect to

the property in question e.g. "our house is bigger than it used to be"; both types of explicit comparison may be compared in the same sentence, e.g. "our house is bigger than yours used to be"; "he is taller than his father was"; but the semantic interpretation of these more complex comparative sentences, the two simpler types of explicit comparison, may be subsumed under a more general formula which also covers the more complex sentences.

Generally speaking, the term ***antonymy*** is used for 'oppositeness of meaning'; words that are opposite are 'antonyms'. Antonymy is often thought of as the opposite of synonymy, but the status of the two is very different. For languages have no real need of true synonyms. In fact, it is doubtful whether any true synonyms exist. But antonymy is a regular and very natural feature of language and can be defined fairly precisely. However, there are different kinds of 'oppositeness'.

One kind of antonymy is that between possible pairs of words such as "wide/narrow; old/young; big/small", etc. These, being all adjectives, have in common the fact that they must be seen in terms of degrees of the quality involved. That is to

say, we have gradation of width, age, size, etc.

Another kind of antonymy is that stated or implied by the use of the comparative (or superlative) type of adjectives represented by the addition of the morphemes -er or -est, and the words 'more, less, most, least', etc. Thus, if we say that "Tom is less stupid than Janet", we mean that Janet is, in terms of degree, more stupid than Tom, or that he is more intelligent than her.

We may also include pairs of the type 'male/female; married/single; alive/dead'; in some way, these are similar to our gradable antonyms. However, an antonym is not necessarily the exact 'other' case of its opposite. Thus, if somebody is not generous, s/he is not necessarily 'stingy', especially as adjectives themselves have grades. In other words, if something or someone is not A, it/s/he is not necessarily B, although this is true in some cases. This distinction depends on the adjective or word itself and the context of use. Remember that a '*small*' American is a '*big*' Japanese.

Finally, there are some pairs of adjectives (e.g. honest/dishonest; obedient/disobedient; open/shut, etc.) that are gradable in terms of "more" or "less", yet in which the denial of one is usually taken to assert the other. But, semantically, this is not a precise judgement. Thus, to say that "Bill is more honest than John" should not of necessity imply that "John is dishonest", except in certain contexts of language use.

IV. 7 Oppositeness of Meaning

Antonymy has long been recognized as one of the most important semantic relations. However, it has been a subject of a good deal of confusion, partly because it has generally been regarded as complimentary to synonymy and partly because most semanticists have failed to give sufficient attention to different kinds of oppositeness.

Synonymy and antonymy are sense-relations of a very different kind. There are three kinds of oppositeness:

1) Complementarity: this is a relation of oppositeness which holds between such pairs of words as single: married; male: female, etc. We use the term complementtarity for this, saying

that single and married or male and female are complimentaries, i.e. not gradable. It is characteristic of such pairs of lexical items that the denial of the one implies the assertion of the other and the assertion of the one implies the denial of the other. Thus, 'John is not married' implies 'John is single'; and 'John is married' implies 'John is not single'. In the case of those pairs, for which we are reserving the term 'antonymy' (e.g. good: bad, high: low), only the second of these implications holds: 'John is good' implies the denial of 'John is bad', but 'John is not good' does not imply the assertion of 'John is bad'. Complementarity may be regarded as a special case of incompatibility holding over two-term sets. The terms imply the denial of each of the other members in the set taken separately (*red* implies not *blue* or *green*, etc.) and the denial of one member of a set of incompatible terms implies the assertion of the disjunction of all the other members (not *red* implies either *green* or *blue*, etc.) In a two-term set of incompatible terms, there is only one other member.

Think of such antonyms in Arabic and English; try to see if 1) they are gradable; and 2) whether they are exact antonyms in

a) one and the same language, and b) the two languages, Arabic and English.

IV. 8. Implicitly-graded Antonyms

We may now consider sentences in which antonyms are not explicit; it may be observed that the denial of the one does not imply our assertion of the other: *our house is not big* does not imply *our house is small* although *our house is big* does imply *our house is not small*. This fact is well known to logicians, and it distinguishes antonyms from complementaries. More important, however, is the fact that the sentences containing antonyms are always implicit, if not implicitly comparative.

IV. 9. Converse-ness

The third sense-relation is that which holds between *buy* and *sell* or *husband* and *wife*. We will use the term *converseness* to refer to this relation. The word 'sell' is the converse of 'buy'. Although antonymy and converseness must be distinguished, there is a parallelism between the two relations. As 'NP1 bought NP3 from NP2' implies and is implied by 'NP2 sold NP3 to NP1', so 'NP1 is bigger than NP2' implies, and is implied by 'NP3 is smaller than NP1'. In both cases, the

lexical substitution of one term for the corresponding antonym or converse is associated with a syntactic transformation, which permutes the noun phrase, NP1 and NP2, and also caries out certain other automatic changes in the selection of the appropriate preposition. It may be observed that this permutational feature is also characteristic of the relationship between corresponding active and passive sentences: *Fadi killed Ali* implies, and is implied by *Ali was killed by Fadi.* In English it is possible to form passive sentences in which the surface subject is identical with the indirect object of the corresponding active sentence. John's father gave him a book is related semantically to both

7. John was given a book by his father, and
8. John received a book from his father.

IV. 10 Parallelism between Antonymy and Complementarity

These are alike in that the assertion of a sentence containing an antonymous or complimentary term implies the denial of a corresponding sentence containing the other antonym or complimentary. This being so, one might envisage the elimination from the vocabulary of all instances of both antonyms and complementarity. Instead of *John is single*, one

could say, equivalently, *John is not married* and instead of *The house is small* and *The house is big*, *The house is less big* and *The house is more big*.

IV. 11 Semantic Structure

The distinction between synthetic and analytic statements has been discussed by philosophers. The distinction my be put as follows: a synthetic statement is one which is true (contingently) as a matter of empirical fact which might have been otherwise; an Analytic statement is one that is 'necessarily' true, and its truth is guaranteed by:

1) the sense of its constituent elements, and 2) the syntactical rules of the language. For example, the sentence *all bachelors are unmarried* might be regarded as analytic on the grounds that *bachelor* and *unmarried* are semantically related in such a way that the truth of it is guaranteed. The validity of the notion of analyticity is open to dispute; and it is possible that it is philosophically indefensible in the form in which it is generally discussed. Fortunately, the semantic analysis of language, as it is used in everyday discourse, need not wait upon the solution of the philosophical problems attaching to the distinction between contingent and necessary truth. what

the linguist requires is a pragmatic concept of analyticity — one which gives theoretical recognition to the tacit presuppositions and assumptions in the speech community and takes no account of their validity within some other frame of reference assumed to be absolute or linguistically and culturally neutral.

It is assumed that in all languages it is possible to establish rules of correspondence between affirmative and negative sentences; and that the correspondence between a particular affirmative and a particular negative sentence is accounted for by the grammar of the language. Thus, the negative sentence "John is not married" corresponds to the affirmative sentence "John is married"; we will now say that a negative sentence explicitly denies whatever is explicitly asserted by the corresponding affirmative sentence; and on the basis of this notion of explicit assertion and denial, we can construct the semantically more interesting notion of implicit assertion and denial, or implication.

Thus, one sentence is said to imply another; it should be stressed that implication, in the sense in which it has been

defined here, is in principle objectively testable. This does not mean of course that all speakers will necessarily agree that one sentence implies another. What may be assumed is that there is a sufficiently large overlap in the implication that holds for different speakers to prevent misunderstanding in the majority of instances, in which they communicate with one another. Semantic theory must allow for a certain degree of indeterminacy in the number and nature of the implications that hold between the sentences of a language.

IV. 12 Context And Reference

Finally, one has to draw a distinction between *reference*, which deals with the relations between language and the non-linguistic world of experience, and *sense*, which deals with relations within language. Linguists and philosophers have, on the whole, been more concerned with sense relations. These appear, superficially at least, to be easier to handle than reference; therefore, we will be mainly concerned with *sense* in this chapter. Sense as suggested by Palmer (1974) and Leech (1974; 1981) is the denotation of linguistic units expressing the relations within a language. Other semanticists, however, go further to consider linguistic meaning, i.e. sense,

as the relation between linguistic units and the world in terms of the context of situation.

IV. 13 Context, culture and style

Palmer (1976) explains that instead of trying to interpret meaning in terms of context, we can set ourselves the much more limited task of identifying those features of context which seem to be most relevant to our choice of language.

To begin with, most, and perhaps all, languages have deictics which identify objects, persons and events in terms of their relation to the speaker in space and time. There are three main types of deictic:

First, the speaker must be able to identify the participants in the discourse — himself and the person or persons to whom he is speaking. The forms with which he achieves this are the first and second person pronouns — *I/we* and *you* respectively in English. The choice of pronoun is, however, often involved with other, social, factors.

Secondly, English has *here* and *there*, *this* and *that* to distinguish between the position of the speaker or closeness to

it and other positions or greater distances. The exact spatial relationship indicated by such words will vary according to the language. In Malagasy, for instance, the choice of the words *ety* and *aty* which may be translated 'here' and 'there' (*Ety ny tranony* 'His house is here', *Aty ny tranony* 'His house is there') depends on whether the object in question is visible or not to the speaker (Keenan 1971: 45). Spatial relations, moreover, may often determine more than simply such words as *here/there, this/that.* English has the pair of verbs *come* and *go* (Filmore, 1966). *Come* is restricted in a way that *go* is not, in that it indicates direction towards the speaker or hearer. It is used, first, for simple direction towards speaker as in *Come to me* and *I'll come to you.* But, secondly, it is also used for direction towards speaker or hearer at the time of the relevant event, either in the past or the future (as well as the present) — *He came to me in London, I'll come to see you in Paris* (*when you get there*). Thirdly, it is used to refer to direction to a place at which the speaker or hearer is habitually found, even if he is not there at the relevant time, e.g. *Come to my office* (though I shan't be there), *I came to your house* (but you were out). In this third case, *go* is also possible, *Go to My office, I went to your house.* Moreover, if the reference is to

motion AWAY from the position of the relevant person, *go* would be much more normal. I could hardly say *Come to my office immediately*, if the person I am addressing is with me in some place other than my office, since the motion is then cleearly away from me. Similarly we should not normally say *He left you at his house and came to yours*, for again the motion is away from the relevant person. If there is no indication at all of the position of either hearer or speaker, *go* will be used. *Come* and *go* are not the only pair of verbs with these characteristics. *Bring* and *take* function in exactly the same way, with the additional meaning of '*carry*'.

Thirdly, time relations are indicated in English not only by general adverbs such as *now* and *then* but also by more specific ones such as *yesterday* and *tomorrow*. Moreover, such time relations are often incorporated into the grammar of the verb — as is the case with most European languages. But although some languages have a clear threefold distinction of present, past and future, e.g. Latin *amo*, *amabo*, *amabam* or *amavi*, it is worth noting that in English the present/past distinction is more central than the distinction between these and the future. For it is only the present/past distinction that is

made by inflection of the verb (love/loved); the future has to be indicated by the use of periphrastic forms such as *will love* or *is going to love*. Even the adverbs *now* and *then* have no single-word counterpart to refer to the future. Moreover, tense is often closely associated in languages with aspect (which is not deictic) and mood (which is highly subjective).

Deictics cannot be ignored in the study of meaning, for ordinary language is full of their use. But, they raise problems for any kind of analysis that treats propositions or statements (categorical assertions) as somehow basic to semantics. For deictics are always subjective in the sense that they can be interpreted only with reference to the speaker, while propositions are, by their definition, wholly objective and independent of speakers.

Another very important aspect of context is that provided by social relations. It is often not enough for the speaker to able to identify the person to whom he is speaking; he must in many languages, also indicate quite clearly the social relations between himself and this person. In many European languages particularly (but not exclusively), we can distinguish between

a polite and a familiar second person pronoun for addressing a single person. The polite form is either what is grammatically or historically the second person plural form or a third person form. This definitely applies to Arabic, in which this social deference or politeness aspect is encoded in the *Anta/Antom* distinction, the same as in French *tu/vous* and other languages such as Greek and Russian using such the plural forms.

The choice between the familiar and the polite forms, or what, following the French forms, are called the T and V forms seems to be-determined by two factors, which have been termed POWER and SOLIDARITY (Brown & Gilman 1960). Power involves the asymmetric relations 'older than', 'parent of' 'richer and 'nobler than', while solidarity involves such symmetric relations as 'attended the same school', 'have the same parents', 'practise the same profession'. Where there is power, the more powerful uses T to address the less powerful, while the less powerful uses V in his reply; where there is solidarity, the T form is used. There may, of course be conflict: an elder brother will be in a position of both power and solidarity in relation to a younger one, or there may be hierarchical relations within a profession. It seems fairly clear,

however, that, as society has become more egalitarian, power plays far less part in the determination of pronoun use, and the non-reciprocal T/V use is no longer to be found in French, German and Italian for father and son or customer and waiter relationships; instead, solidarity would dictate the T forms in the first case, and lack of it would require the V forms in the second.

The conflict between solidarity and power is seen in other areas of language used for personal address. Thus, a generation or more ago, it was normal for academics in Britain to use surnames for addressing one another, especially in correspondence. This was essentially a solidarity device (though a non-professional member of staff would probably have addressed a professor with his title — a matter of power). This custom has now almost wholly disappeared except among older academies; the reason is very probably that the use of surname alone was an employer-employee power device which was felt to be objectionable by the increasing numbers of people with working-class origins who entered the profession. The solidarity device today is the use of first names, though this too has some power function, as

between teacher (or parent) and child.

In some other languages much more complex linguistic systems are involved (see Shammas, 1995; 2004). Arabic and Japanese, for instance, have their own honorifics. In Arabic, this is at times, where the power asymmetry is obvious, even exaggerated, particularly as the cost/benefit scale is also at work in such relations in the Third-World countries, in particular (see Leech, 1981; 1983 and Thomas, J., 1981; 1983). This status marking is a matter of the grammar of the language and is as obligatory as the marking of *tense* in English.

However, the concept of context has somewhat recently been approached from a different perspective (see Sperber & Wilson, 1986a/1995, Shammas, 1995; 2004; 2005, among others).

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End of Part One

Part Two: Syntax

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Chapter One : Preliminaries

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1.1 Introduction

No linguistic analysis can claim to be scientific unless it deals with the basic components of language: phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics (pragmatics). In some (usually older) textbooks, the word "grammar" has a more restricted use. It refers only to what we will call 'Syntax'. In these books, the term 'Syntax' is restricted to the arrangement of words, and the standard term morphology is used for their make up.

We don't tend to confuse our students with any distinction among those different linguists' terminologies. But we refer to 'Syntax' and 'grammar' as the same one, because syntax refers to the ways in which words are used to produce meaningful utterances; that is, it is primarily concerned with the relationship of words in sentences and the ways in which these words are put together to form sentences.

We, like other grammarians, use the term "Syntax" interchangeably with that of "word-order". Hence, this part of the book covers different areas of syntactic constituents, such as, phrases, their types and functions, the clause structure,

their categories, functions, and features. In addition to elements of the sentence structure and its types. Furthermore, cohesive devices and their categories and functions are also dealt with in a more comprehensive way. Eventually texts are well-designed to enable the open University Students at Damascus University to learn and practise these syntactic areas in a more plausible way.

1.2 Definition of Syntax:

"Syntax" is the term that is taken from the Ancient Greek Sýntaxis ; it is a verbal noun which means "arrangement" or "setting out together". Traditionally, it is the branch of grammar that deals with the ways in which words are arranged to show connections of meaning within the sentence. e.g. *It tastes nice.*

In this construction, there are connections of meaningful units among [it + tastes + nice] . That means they are put by the words of words as shown here (it + tastes + nice) (see Matthews, 1992: 1).

Greenbaum and Quirk (1990:1-3) assume that "grammar" includes both Syntax and Morphology. Morphology deals

with the internal structure of words while Syntax deals with the statements, interrogative forms, as in:

1. He bought it.
2. Did he buy it?

They claim that grammar may vary according to the linguistic theory in which the linguists differ in their own theorization of grammar. Thus, in the light of linguistic theory, some grammarians speak of "the grammar" as embracing rules not only for Syntax but for phonological, lexical, and semantic specifications as well.

P.H. Matthews (1992:29) defines "Syntax" as "the study of constructions"; the sentence as the maximal unit of Syntax, or the largest unit over which constructional relations hold. For example, 'I', 'go', 'away' cannot have constructional relations unless they are put in a certain sentence pattern. Bloomfield (1933) formulates that 'go' and 'away' are both 'linguistic forms'; each can occur in many different contexts: (I must go out; Take me away ; so on). He concludes that "in any utterance the set of sentences is in the maximal linguistic forms".

Burton-Roberts (1997:3) illustrates that Syntax is traditionally the name given to the study of form positioning and grouping of the elements that go to take up sentences as in:

1. Dick believes himself to be genius.
2. Dick believes he is genius.

In dictionaries, Syntax is defined as the rules of grammar which are used for ordering and connecting words in a sentence. Jean Aitchison (1999:8) assumes that the word 'grammar' in some older textbooks has its restricted use which is called Syntax, but David Crystal (1997:377) defines Syntax (Syntactics) as a traditional term for the study of the rules governing the way words are joined to form sentences in a language. In other words, Syntax is the study of interrelationships between elements of sentence structure, and of the rules governing the arrangement of sentences in sequence. Studying the sequential arrangements of syntax is referred to as "Syntactics".

1.3 Phrases

A phrase is defined as a term used in grammatical analysis to refer to a single element of structure typically containing more than one word, and lacking the subject-predicate structure typical of clauses. Traditionally it is seen as part of a structural hierarchy, falling between clause and word, several types being distinguished e.g. 'Adverb phrase' (e.g. very slowly) 'Adjectival phrase' (e.g. in the morning)..., but in generative grammar, there are additional types of phrases, which are out of our study, (i.e. of the analytic units) Noun phrase and verb phrase (Crystal, 1997:293).

A phrase is also defined as 'sequence of words that can function as constituents in the structure of sentences are called phrases' (Burton-Roberts,1997:14). One could say that a phrase, beside a steam in [Old Sam sunbathed beside a steam] is intermediate between the sentence and the words rather than the way that wheel is intermediate between and. Since one cannot omit any of the words individually, it appears that, while the phrase is optional in the structure of the sentence, the words are not optional, but necessary in the structure of

the phrase. It has been said that a phrase is a sequence of words that can function as a constituent in the structure of sentences. It is seen that beside a steam, a steam, and old Sam can function as constituents in sentence structure; they are, therefore, phrases.

1.3.1 Types of Phrases:

Traditionally, there have been three types of phrases; namely, the noun phrase, the verb phrase, and the prepositional phrase . Such types can be discussed as follows:

1.3.1.1 The Noun Phrase

The subject of a clause is usually called a Noun Phrase. 'Noun Phrase', often abbreviated to NP, is a suitable term for any one of the following:

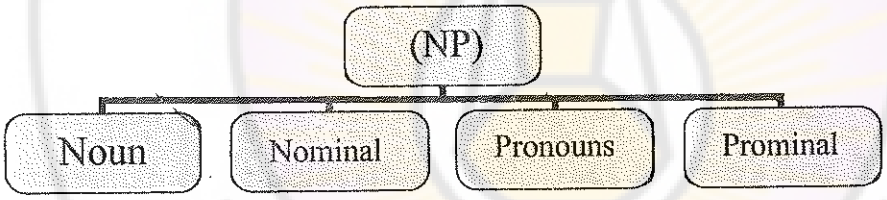
a. a Noun, such as, George, boys;

b. a Nominal Group, such as, the boys, the headmaster's desk, in which a noun (boys, desk) is the HEAD, and in which the other words (the, the headmaster's) modify the head;

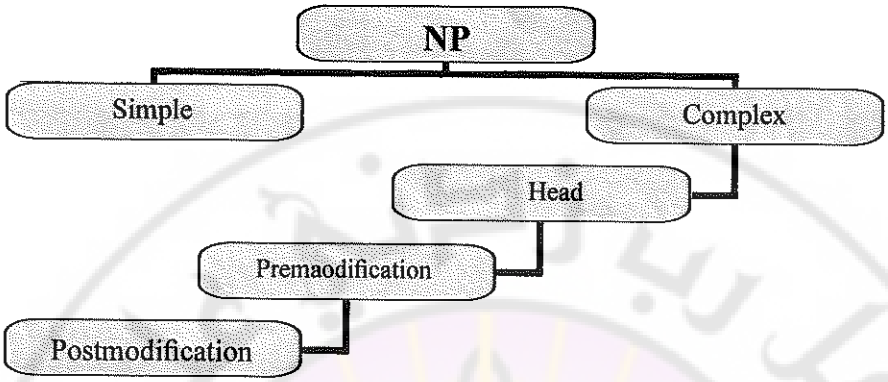
c. a pronoun, which may be one of the seven so-called personal pronouns (I, you, he, she, it, we, they) or an

INDEFINITE PRONOUN like everyone or something, or one of the words like 'this' or 'that' which can be used as pronouns. A pronoun is a PRO-FORM; i.e. a form used instead of another form. There have been various types of pro-form;

d. a PRONOMINAL GROUP, such as, we all, everyone, in our class, in which a pronoun (we, everyone) is the head. These can be termed as the fundamentals of the noun phrase structure.



It has also been believed (Quirk et al, 1990:30) that the sentences themselves can be reshaped so as to come within noun phrase structure. Hence, the noun phrases can be simple or complex:



The following sentences can have a simple noun phrase, as in:

1. That girl is Laura Tony.
2. That girl is tall.

That girl' is the noun phrase; it comprises of a determiner 'that' and the noun 'girl'. But the complex noun phrase can have three components:

(a) The head, around which the other components cluster and which dictates concord and other kinds of congruence with the rest of the sentence outside the noun phrase. Thus, in the following sentences [1] , [2] , [3] we can have:

[1] That tall girl standing in the corner.....is....

[2] Those tall girls standing in the corner.....are.....

[3] He addressed that girl standing in the corner.....

(b) The premodification, which comprises all the items put before the head, namely (determiners, adjectives, and nouns). Hence:

That tall girl

Some very expensive office furniture

(c) The post-modification comprises all the items placed after the head, namely, prepositional phrases, non-finite clauses, and relative clauses, as in:

The chair by the wall

All the boys playing in the garden

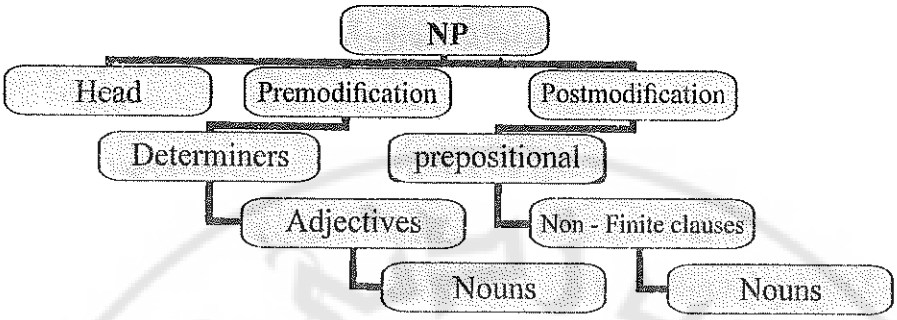
A car which she bought recently

Another type of a noun phrase called apposition, a construction typically presenting noun phrases of identical reference, as in:

My dentist, Susan Williams, is heavily overworked. (my dentist is Susan Williams).

The authorities are worried by the problem of vandalism. (the problem is vandalism).

Hence, a complex noun phrase can have (i.e. NP) :



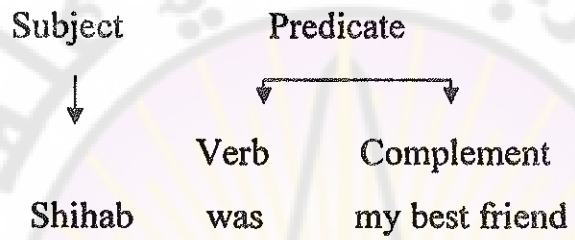
1.3.1.2 Different Functions of the Noun Phrase:

It is common that a noun phrase can function as the subject, as in:

1. I have just phoned George.
2. He was my best friend.
3. This is his photograph.
4. The boys were writing for the headmaster to come in.
5. She did not like him very much.
6. Everyone in our class could see that.
7. Yet George always did his work perfectly.
8. At nine o'clock, all the Open University Students assembled at the college.
9. The dean's desk is over there.
10. We all stand up to greet the chairman of the department.

It seems clear that all the underlined words can have the function of the subject (NP).In addition to being the subject, NP can also be:

1. The complement of the subject (complement that which completes). Shihab was my best friend can be analysed into:



In this example, it seems clear that the verb serves to combine the subject and complement together. Thus, the full verb [Be] is commonly known as a COPULA (= that which combines): it is often dropped in newspaper headlines, telegrams, and notes.

When the complement is a noun, it must agree with the subject in number and gender:

Ali was a good actor.

Layla and Selma were good actresses.

2. The DIRECT OBJECT of a verb, as in:

	Verb	Direct Object
I	knew	Salim Ibrahim.
Samer	finished	his work.

A verb that takes an object is commonly called Transitive. In other words, it is used transitively. It seems clear that the full verbs in English are used either as transitively or intransitively, as in:

TRANSITIVE (followed by an object)	**INTRANSITIVE (not followed by an object)**
(a) raise, raised , raised Tom raised his head.	(b) rise , rose , risen The sun rises in the east.
(c) set , set , set I will set the book on the desk.	(d) sit , sat , sat I sit in the front row.
(e) lay , laid , laid I am laying the book on the desk.	(f) lie , lay , lain He is lying on his bed.

(g) hang , hung , hung I hung my clothes in the closet.	(h) hang , hanged, hanged They hanged the criminal by the neck until he was dead.

3- The INDIRECT OPJECT , as in :

Subject	Predicate		
	Verb	Indirect Object	Direct Object
The Chairman	gave	Salim	a gift.
The headmaster	gave	her	a new book.
He	found	Rola	a seat

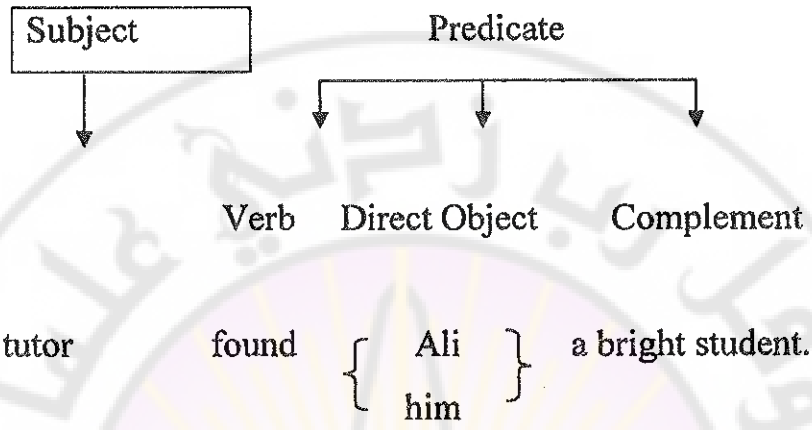
These sentences can be reworded as in:

The chairman gave a gift to Salim.

The head master gave a new book to her.

He found a seat for Rola .

4. THE COMPLIMENT OF THE OBJECT, as in:



This sentence can be reworded as:

The tutor found Ali to be a bright student.

It is clear that the existence of BE in the rewording of the above sentence suggests that what the tutor really thought, and possibly said, was Ali is a bright student.

5. The OBJECT of A PREPOSITION, as in:

in the same college

in a high platform

It seems clear that the NPs, the same college, a high platform, are the objects of, or are governed by the prepositions 'in', 'on' respectively.

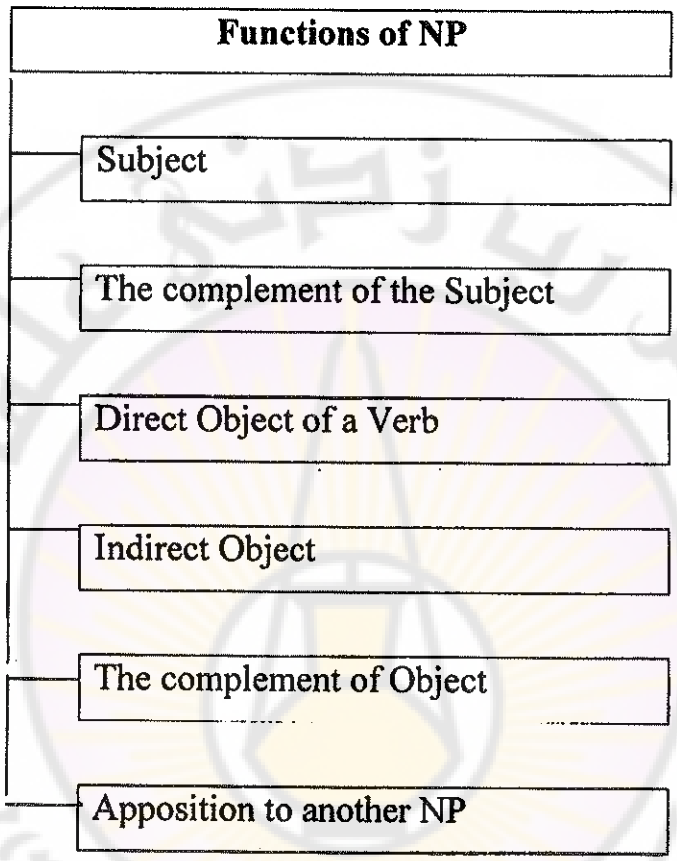
6. In opposition to another NP, as in:

1. Your friend Nafez Shammas has just phoned.
2. Nafez Shammas, your dearest friend, has just phoned.

In these examples, the NPs, Nafez Shammas, and your dearest friend are in opposition to each other respectively.

Here one can distinguish between the meaning of these two examples in English Syntax. In the first example Nafez Shammas is RESTRICTIVE; it restricts the meaning of your friend by supplying a definite reply to the question which friend?. Note the nonexistence of the intonation, while in the second one, being unique, does not need to be modified; your dearest friend is NON-RESTRICTIVE; it doesn't notify us which Nafez Shammas has phoned, but merely adds information about him. Hence in the second example, the NP in non-restrictive apposition can be distinguished by the existence of commas and breaking up the intonation of the sentence.

Hence this section can be summarized as:



1.3.1.3 The Verb Phrase

This section can be discussed as follows:

1.3.1.3.1 Preliminaries

Grammarians (Quirk 1990; Matthews 1992) have generally agreed that the verbs can be classified formally and functionally. The formal classification of a verb refers to an

element which can display morphological contrasts of tense, aspect, voice, mood, person, and number. Functionally, it is the element which, singly or in combination with other verbs (i.e. 'verb phrase'), is used as the minimal predicate of a sentence, co-occurring with a subject e.g. she/wrote. If the predicate includes other components (e.g. object, complement, adverbial) then it is the verb which is the unit which affects the choice and extent of these components; e.g. the verb put takes both an object and an adverb of location, as in: he put the book on the desk.

Accordingly, in many grammatical theories, the verb is considered the most important component in sentence structure. Traditionally, the term verb phrase is used in two senses .It normally refers to a group of verbs which together have the same syntactic Function as a single verb, e.g., is going, may be going, get up to.

In such phrases (verbal groups, verbal clusters), one verb is the main verb (the lexical verb) while the others are subordinate to it (auxiliary verbs, catenative verbs). A verb followed by a non-verbal particle is generally referred to as a phrasal verb.

Shammash (2001: 49-50) sums up that the verb phrase can consist of the main verb or be accompanied by one or auxiliary verbs as in these examples:

1. Miranda phoned. (Main verb)
2. Miranda has phoned. (Main verb proceeded by one auxiliary)
3. Miranda has been phoning. (Main verb proceeded by two auxiliaries)
4. Miranda must have been phoning. (Main verb proceeded by three auxiliaries)
5. Miranda must have been being phoned. (Main verb proceeded by four auxiliaries)

1.3.1.3.2 The paradigms of the verb phrase:

Paradigmatically the verb phrase can be classified by grammarians as follows:

1.3.1.3.2.1 Finite Verb Phrases

A finite verb phrase is a verb phrase in which the first word is a finite verb, the rest of the verb phrase consisting of nonfinite verbs. Finite verb phrases can be classified as follows:

(1) Finite verb phrases can occur as the verb phrase of independent clauses.

(2) Finite verb phrases have tense contrast (the distinction between present and past tenses)

He is an accountant now.

He worked as a journalist last summer.

(3) There is person concord and number concord between the subject of a clause and the finite verb phrase:

I am / go He / she / it is / goes.

We / you / they are / go.

1.3.1.3.2.2 Non-finite verb phrases

The non-finite form of the verb (walk) can be classified into:

1. The infinitive (to walk).
2. The- ing participale (walking)
3. The –ed participale (walked)

Thus, any phrase in which one of these verb forms is the first word is a non-finite verb phrase, as in :

1. To walk through dark streets is not easy.
2. Walking through dark streets is not easy.
3. The people walked here tend to be cheerful.

1.3.1.4 The prepositional phrases:

A prepositional phrase consists of a preposition followed by a prepositional complement. The complement is usually a noun phrase but can also be another element. Here have been different complements of prepositions:

1. Preposition+ a noun phrase

As usual, her bright smile greeted me at the breakfast table.

2. Preposition + a wh-clause

She came from what she called 'a small farm' of two hundred acres.

3. Preposition + an-ing clause:

Fa'aza tried to shake off her fears by looking at the sky.

4. Preposition + an adverb

You can see the station from here.

There have been two types of nominal clauses which cannot be complement of a preposition: that-clauses and to-infinitive clauses. In using these kinds of such clauses, the preposition is usually omitted:

I was surprised that things changed so quickly.

I was surprised to hear you say it had been raining.

You can notice that the preposition [at] is omitted in the above clauses.

But in a wh-clause, the preposition is usually used as in:

I was surprised at what happened next.

I agree with what you say, Sami.

Prepositional phrases have many different grammatical functions. The main functions are the following:

1. Prepositional phrases as adverbial.

I may need you to do some work in the evening.

To my surprise, Ola phoned the next morning.

Finally she went back to her old job.

2. Prepositional phrases as modifier in a noun phrase:

She felt she had no chance of promotion.

I've rented this cottage in the country for peace and quiet.

3. Prepositional phrases as verb complement:

You mustn't worry too much about this.

4. Prepositional phrases as complement of an adjective:

How can you remember when that drama came out?

I terribly had at dates.

A prepositional phrase may occasionally function as subject, complement, …etc.

Before lunch is when I do my best work.

Prepositional phrases may have various prepositional meanings, most of them are either spatial or figuratively derived from notions of physical space. Study these examples:

1. I like being in this room.
2. She will finish the work in the present month.
3. His life is in danger.
4. They told me this in all seriousness.
5. I love walking through woods in spring.
6. The children were playing around the park.
7. There in someone walking up and down the drive.
8. The horse has successfully jumped across the gap.
9. She last saw her parents at Christmas.
10. In the evening, I listened to some Beethoven records.
11. Try to stay alert throughout the entire ceremony.
12. She was fined for dangerous driving.
13. What will you drink with your meal?

Chapter Two :

Clause Structure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2.1 Definition of Clause

A clause is a term used in some models of grammar to refer to a unit of grammatical organization smaller than the sentence, but larger than phrases, words, or morphemes. The traditional classification is into main (or superordinate) and subordinate (or dependent) clauses;

e.g. The girl arrived / after the rain started.

Some grammars distinguish finite and non-finite types of clause, depending on the form of the verb used, and further subdivisions are sometimes made;

e.g. reduced 'verbless' clause, as in:

When ripe, these apples will be lovely.

A more sub-classification would take into account the function of clauses within the sentence; e.g. as an adverbial, a noun, or an adjective.

It would also analyze clauses into formal elements of structure, such as, a subject ,a verb ,an object, a complement, and an adverbial.

Derived terms include wh-clauses such as:

I wonder when they will leave.

That clauses, such as:

They decided that the journey was too far.

It is common that a simple sentence is composed of a single independent clause, which may be one of seven types. The types differ according to whether or some clause components are obligatorily present, in addition to the subject and verb (henceforth S and V). The V component in a simple sentence is always a finite verb phrase.

2.2.1 Main or independent clauses

The main clauses can have the following types:

1. SV The sun (S) is shining (V).
2. SVO That lecture (S) bored (V) me (O).
3. SVC Your dinner (S)seems (V) ready (C).
4. SVA My office (S) is (V) in the next building (A).
5. SVOO I (S) must send (V) my parents (O) an anniversary card (O).
6. SVOC Most students (S) have found (V) her (O) reasonably helpful (C).
7. SVOA You (S) can put (V) the dish (O) on the table(A).

Optional adverbials (adjuncts) can be added to sentences of any of these types:

Luckily, the sun is already shining [SV].

Later, you can perhaps put the dish on the table [SVOA].

2.2.2. The Subordinate (dependent) Clauses:

A clause can be subordinate or (dependent) by being able to replace an NP in the other clause, or by modifying an NP in the other clause, or by being able to replace an adverbial in it. Thus:

1. Everyone could see { a. that
   b. (that) he was frightened

2. I often see { a. my old school friends
   b. friends / who were at school with me

3. I met Salim Ali { a. twenty years ago
   b. When / I was at school

In [1.a], that pronounced {ðæt} is an NP, a demonstrative pronoun and the object of see.

In [2.a], that he was frightened can replace the NP and is called MAIN CLAUSE, object of see in the MAIN CLAUSE: in that sense, the noun clause is subordinate to the main clause.

In [2.b], who were at school with me is a RELATIVE CLAUSE, 'relating' to and modifying friends in the main clause.

In [3.b], when I was at school is an ADVERBIAL CLAUSE OF TIME, or a temporal clause, equivalent to an adverbial adjunct, e.g. twenty years ago.

A subordinate clause is usually- and always can be- introduced by a SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTION, e.g. when or what, or by a RELATIVE PRONOUN, e.g. who.

He was frightened and I was at school are independent clauses and complete sentences by themselves; but that he was frightened and when I was at school are subordinate clauses and cannot be complete sentences on their own: a main clause must be added as in [1.b] and [3.b], before a complete sentence can be made from them.

2.2.3 Types of the subordinate clauses:

It is said that the main clause is always a finite clause, subordinate clause (sub-clause), on the other hand, can be a finite or, non-finite, or verbless clause, as in: (Quirk & Greenbaum ,1973:309); (Greenbaum & Quirk,1990:

140-204); (see Leech & Svartsvik, 1994:382).

1) Finite Sub-clause:

Because I've brought wrong key, I don't open the door.

2) Non-finite Sub- clause:

Sitting here in the sun, I can see snow-covered hills.

In other non-finite subclauses, the verb can be –ed participle or an infinitive, as in:

I could see the distant hills covered with snow.

I am perfectly content to sit here in the sun.

3) Verbless Subclauses:

Unhappy with the result, he returned to work.

Grammarians often maintain that these three types of subclauses (finite, non-finite, and verbless) may generally themselves have sub-clauses inside them. One can notice that this sentence can have a non-finite clause containing a finite sub-clause:

Having made that mistake once, I promised not to make it again.

Grammarians have also commonly agreed that these sub-clauses may verify in their functions and types. There have been three common types of such dependent (or

subordinate)clauses; the noun (or nominal) clause; the adjective clause; and the adverbial clause. These types of sub-clauses have been studied as follows:

2.2.3.1 The Noun Clauses

Noun clauses can be sub - divided into: That-clauses, and Wh-clauses. It is common that-clauses and Wh-clause scan begin with that or wh-word. Examine these examples:

1) I know that it is true.
2) That she is homeless is not true.
3) I know this man when I was in the army.
4) What he said annoyed me.
5) I do not touch what she said.
6) I do not know where the chairman lives.

That-clauses can have four of the functions of an NP (noun clause). Hence, a that-clause can be:

1) The subject of a verb in another clause, as in:

1. That she could not cook well annoys me.
2. That she is intelligent is obvious.

It is known that the conjunction that is used obligatorily when the clause is subject. Thus, that can not be dropped.

2) The subject of a verb in another clause. In such a kind of clause, the conjunction that can be used optionally, i.e. it can be dropped, as in:

1. I know (that) she is coming.
2. He alleges (that) he is a novelist.

That-clause, used as an object, can often be employed obligatorily when it can come before the clause it depends on, as in: That Ali was actually afraid, I can't believe.

3) The complement of subject + Be, as in:

The truth is (that) she is very bashful.

4) In addition to a noun like "fact, notion, idea, explanation, as in:

1. The fact that the Allied troops occupy Iraq worries the Arabs.
2. The assumption that Wall Construction in Palestine is still a debate among Westerners.
3. The hard truth, that her family had lost all their money, was a great shock to her.

It is usually believed that the that-clause can be followed by certain adjectives, which refer to personal feelings or states of

mind. Such adjectives can be exemplified in (afraid, certain, surprised). Examine these illustrative examples:

1. I am afraid (that) the house will catch fire.
2. She is certain (that) nothing happens to the baby.
3. Her colleagues are surprised that she'll pass the exam.
4. Ali is satisfied his wife can't lend him any money.

That-clause is also commonly used in a reported speech. Study these examples:

1. She tells me that the street is closed.
2. I tell you that the bridge has collapsed.
3. I tell you that they are repairing the fridge.
4. I told Maria that she had passed her exam.
5. Rawida said that we had to go out.
6. We told him that the accident (had) happened two hours before.
7. They propose that the careless worker should be dismissed.

WH-Clause:

A wh-clause can have four of the functions of an NP (noun clause). Thus, a wh-clause can be:

1) the subject of another clause:

<u>What she said</u> annoyed me.

2) the object of a verb in another clause:

No one knows what happened to her.

3) subject-complement:

The question is what caused the problem.

4) the object of a preposition:

It depends on what they really mean.

It seems clear that the wh-clause can employ all functions of a that-clause except of one function. The wh-clause can be governed by a preposition while the that-clause can't, as in:

1. She depends on what you will promise to do for her.
2. He is fond of what she intelligently believes.

It is also clear that a wh-clause can't be apposition to a noun in the main clause as that of a that-clause (as it is mentioned before).

2.2.3.2. The Adjective Clauses

An adjective clause is interchangeably used with a relative clause because they have the same function they modify the noun phrases; that is they modify the noun phrase which is called the antecedent. Hence, an adjective clause is commonly introduced by a relative pronoun (who, whose, whom, which,

that). This is why adjective clauses are also usually called "relative clauses".

A relative clause can be Restrictive (or defining), non-restrictive (or defining). The defining relative clause restricts the meaning of the antecedent, which it modifies. A non-relative clause only gives additional information about the antecedent, which is normally an NP referring to a person or thing, as in:

1. There is always a place for people who can speak foreign languages well.(defining)
2. The younger people, who have lost all faith and convictions, are now parents. (non-defining)

Here, you can notice that the first sentence shows that the relative clause is a defining clause; it restricts the antecedent, people, to the ones, that can speak foreign languages. On the other hand, in the second sentence, the relative clause is non-defining; it adds only information about the antecedent, the younger people, that have lost all faith and convictions.

A non-defining relative clause splits up the main clause to which it is subordinate, as in:

1. The driver, whose main interest is .avoiding the road dangers, is a successful driver.

2. This piece of furniture, the price of which fluctuates between 500 to 600 L.S, can be of high quality.

The antecedent of a relative clause can be : (1) personal or (2) non-personal; and the relative clause beginning the clause can be:

a. the subject of the clause

b. the object of a verb in the clause

c. the object of a preposition

d. a possessive

These four functions of relative pronouns can be illustrated in the following examples:

(1) That is the man . He hit me = That is the man who hit me.

(2) That is the man. I saw him = That is the man whom I saw.

(3) That is the man. I spoke to him = That is the man to whom I spoke.

(4) That is the man. His car crashed = That is the man whose car crashed.

However, the relative pronoun in both sentences (2 and 3) can be dropped, as in:

1. That is the man I saw.
2. That is the man I spoke to.

Now try to examine the following table about the relative pronouns occurring in defining and non-defining clauses:

	A. in defining clauses		B. in non-defining clauses	
	1. Personal	2. Non-personal	1. Personal	2. Non-personal
a) Subject	Who or that	Which or that	Who	Which
b) Object	Whom	Which	Whom	Which
c)Object of preposition	To whom or whom, that to	To which Which / that to	To whom or whom..	To whom or which to
d) Possessive	Whose	Whose or of which	whose	Whose or of which

(compare Leech & Svartsvik, 1994:369)

The following are the illustrative examples of the use of relative pronouns in the above table:

A1) Defining clauses, with Personal Antecedent:

a) That is the instructor who/that was retired last month.

b) That is the student whom/that I favour much.

c) Is that the teacher whom/that you sent a letter to?

d) This is the girl whose husband is a friend of mine.

A2) Defining clauses, with Non-Personal Antecedent:

a) This is the car which/ that overtakes us every five minutes.

b) This is the car which/that she bought yesterday.

c) Is this apartment which/that you live in?. Or

Is this the apartment in which you live?

d) He mentioned a novel whose title has slipped my memory.

Or

He mentioned a novel the title of which I can't remember now.

B1) Non-Defining Clauses, with Personal Antecedent:

1) The wife, who is still quite young, had a good manner.

2) The typist, whom I respect very much, works hard indeed.

3) The typist, to whom I resort for help at times, is very helpful.

4) The typist, whose quality is high, helps me indeed.

B2) Non-Defining Clauses, with Non-Personal Antecedent:

1) This man soon repaired the car, which had been slightly damaged.

2) The cooker, which my wife uses at times, is still in a good condition.

3) The garage to which the car had been taken was near. Or
The garage, which the car had been taken to, was near.
4) This novel, whose writer is a man of eighty, is very exciting. Or
This novel, the writer of which is a man of eighty, is very exciting.

There have been more than one relative clause in a sentence. Examine this sentence:
He is the only man I know who can play the guitar.
In this sentence, the first defining clause, whose relative pronoun omitted, is I know; it restricts the meaning of man; while the second is who can play the guitar, and it restricts the meaning of the only man I know.
When two relative clauses within the same sentence are independent of each other, it is obvious to begin each with its own relative pronoun, as in:
This is the fridge that I have been using for ten years, and whose motor was made in Japan.

Eventually, a relative clause may have a whole clause as its antecedent, as in:

1. He has recently promoted as manager, which surprised all very much.

It seems clear that the relative clause, which, in this sentence has the feature of anaphora; that refers back to the whole clause, i.e. , the fact that he has promoted.

2. Countrymen are quite conservative in terms of the relationship between men and women, which is lenient to the city inhabitants.

2.2.3.3. The Adverbial Clauses

There have been various types of adverbial clauses in English. Some of them can clearly be related to the adverbials of time, place, and manner.

It is commonly known that the adverb, in each clause, often called a relative adverb, joins the subordinate clause with its main clause, as in:

1) She got up to when she heard a strange noise. [Adverbial clause of time]

2) You may park your car where there is a parking sign. [Adverbial clause of place]

3) Rawida writes as her father does. [An adverbial clause of manner]

You can notice that clauses of time and place may follow or precede the main clause.

You can also notice that "when" and "where" can be replaced by "whenever" and "wherever" to indicate indefinite time and place respectively, as

1. She got up to whenever she heard a strange noise.
2. You could park your car wherever there was a parking sign.

Or

1. Whenever she heard a strange noise, she got up to.
2. Wherever there was a parking sign, you were permitted to park your car.

But it is not normally said:

3) *As her father does, she writes.

Until and till, the two inter-placeable words, mark the end-point of a period of time in any adverbial clauses. They are usually associated with a verb denoting an action or lack of action which can go during the period ending at that point, as in:

1. Wait here until I come back.

2. You mustn't go until I return.

Hence, the waiting in [1], and the not-going in [2], will continue throughout the period.

On the other hand, since (when it introduces an adverbial clause of time) can mark the beginning of a period of time continuing until Now, or until then,

1. Since I left school, I haven't seen him.
2. We were friends at school until he left for Britain, since then, we haven't corresponded each other.

While, as an adverbial of time, can have the meaning of 'during the period that', as in:

1. I was studying English while he was playing the guitar.
2. I studied hard while he played soccer.

You can notice that the subordinator while can be replaced by 'as' or 'when' in certain examples of adverbial time clauses:

1. While she was taking a shower, her husband came in.
2. As she was taking a shower, her husband came in.
3. When she was taking a shower, her husband came in.

Other adverbial clauses include conditional clauses introduced by words, such as, if, unless, etc…

Here is a summary of basic form usage in conditional clauses:

Meaning of the If clause	Verb Form in the If clause	Verb Form in the Result Clause	Exemplification
True in the present/future	Simple present	Simple present Simple future	(a) If I <u>have</u> enough time, I write to my friends every month. (b) If I have enough time, I <u>will write</u> to my friends.
Untrue in the present/future	Simple past	Would + simple form	(c) If I <u>had</u> enough time now, I <u>would</u> write to my friends.
Untrue in the past	Past perfect	Would have + past participle	(d) If I had had enough money, I would have bought a car.

A conditional clause, coming before or after the main clause, can also be introduced by the conjunction unless, as in:

if you don't hurry.

1. **You won't catch the train unless you hurry.**

2. Your parcel will be arrived this evening, unless you (would) prefer to take it now.

3. Goods will not be delivered unless they are paid in advance.

Comparison clauses, which are introduced by than, can be considered one of the major types of adverbial clauses. Examine these examples:

1. Samer walks more quickly than I do.

2. Layla is not [so / as] quick as Selma is.

3. She writes as neatly as her mother does.

Note that in such subordinate clauses in these sentences is a pro-form; it places the verbal construction of the main clause.

There are other adverbial clauses, such as, reason clauses, introduced by because, etc.... A clause of reason or cause may begin with because, since, seeing (that), or as, and may precede or follow the main clause. It is normally known that because is used in answer to why?, as in:

1. I don't open the door because it is not cool outside.
2. Since I was in the same department, as Nidal, I know her very well.
3. Seeing (that) everyone is in, I think the debate will soon start.
4. Now (that) I was in the same class as Layla, I used to be with her all the time.
5. As I've brought the wrong key, I don't open the door.

Another kind of adverbial clauses can be discussed here. It is of 'contrast clauses', sometimes called concession clauses, introduced by subordinators, such as, though, although, even if, while, and whereas.

Although and though are normally interchangeable, as in:

1. Although (though) students normally spend four years at college, they don't practise English well.
2. Even if you lock your apartment, the professional thief can break in.

3. The weather in Damascus is nice, while it is not in London.

4. Whereas she is clever, her colleagues are not.

5. However hard you study, you'll never pass this exam.

Purpose clauses, which are another type of adverbial clauses, can be introduced by so that, in order that, lest, for fear that. However, it is noticed that so that expressing purpose should be distinguished from so…that expressing result.

Examine these illustrative examples of adverbial clauses of purpose:

1. They shut the windows so (that) the neighbours couldn't hear the radio.

2. In order that she should travel, she kept the baby with her.

3. I issued these instructions in writing, for fear that my spoken message might be misunderstood.

4. He issued all his instructions in writing lest a spoken message should be misunderstood.

Eventually, Result clauses, as adverbial clauses expressing consequence, are usually introduced by these constructions:

1) so + adjective + that

2) so + adverb + that

Study these illustrative examples:

1. Her voice was so clear that everyone could hear her pretty well.
2. It rained so heavily that we stayed at home.
3. She wrote such a nice story that the committee appreciated highly her ability.

2.2.4 Syntactic Functions of Clause elements

This section may cover the following topics:

1. Objects and Complements

There have been two subcategories of each of object and complement. In the sentence:

I have sent David some books; David is the indirect object and some books is the direct object. Whenever these two objects are (in type SVOO) the indirect object usually is put before the direct object. Though the direct object is central in being closer to the verb, but it is, in other cases, more peripheral than the direct object : it is likely to be optional (Susan poured some coffee) and it can be paraphrased by a prepositional phrase functioning as an adverbial (Susan poured some coffee for David).

The two types of complement occur in various clause patterns. The subject complement can be found in the SVC pattern:

1. Susan is becoming quite mature.

The object complement, on the other hand, is found in the SVOC pattern:

2. Robert considers Susan quite mature.

In [1] the subject complement characterizes the subject Susan, while in [2] the object complement characterizes the object Susan. In [1] and [2] the complement is an adjective phrase, but the same distinction is a noun phrase:

Haidar is becoming a conscientious student. [Cs]

His parents consider Haidar a conscientious student. [Co]

Obligatory Adverbials

Typically obligatory adverbials refer to location . They can be divided into those occurring in the SVA pattern, in which a space is attributed to the referent of the subject, and those occurring in the SVOA pattern, in which a location is attributed to the referent of the direct object.

There has been a parallel between obligatory adverbials and complements, which can be illustrated in these pairs of sentences:

1. Daniel stayed very quiet. [Cs]
2. Daniel stayed in bed. [As]
3. Rita kept Daniel very quiet. [Co]
4. Rita kept Daniel in bed. [Ao]

in [2] the adverbial is subject-related (like the subject-complement in [1]), and in [4] it is object-related (like the object-complement in [3]). The parallel can illustratively be shown in the verb classes, and the verb, therefore, in both [1] and [2] is called copular (i.e. it is equivalent in function to the copula complex-transitive).

Space adverbials include not only (in bed in [2]) but also direction (to bed, as in John and Rita went to bed). Obligatory adverbials can convey other meanings included in metaphorical extensions of space:

The next meeting will be in April.

We kept him off cigarettes.

Others have still no connection with spatial meaning:

They treated her kindly. He is without job.

2.2.5 Syntactic characteristics of Clause elements

The verb is almost always realized by a verb phrase. It is normally present in all clauses, including imperative clauses

(where the subject is typically absent). The verb decides what other elements (apart from the subject) may or must occur in the clause:

The subject

(1) It is typically a noun phrase:

That girl is tall.

(2) It normally occurs before the verb in declarative clauses and after an operator in yes-no interrogative clauses:

They live in Jarmana. Do they live in Jarmana?

(3) It determines the number and person, where relative of the verb:

My daughter watches TV after dinner.

(4) The subjective form have distinctive case forms:

The policeman detained this young woman.

She resisted him.

The object

(1) It is typically a noun phrase:

She told him that he passed the exam.

(2) It normally follows the subject and verb, and if both objects are present, the indirect object comes before the direct object:

She gave her brother a gift.

(3) It may generally become the subject of the corresponding passive clause:

George and I were placed in the same class.

(4) It requires in finite clauses the objective form for pronouns that have distinctive case forms:

I have just telephoned George who came late.

The complement

(1) It is typically a noun phrase or an adjective phrase:

Benjamin is becoming a conscientious student. [Cs]

(2) It normally follows the subject and verb if subject-complement, and the direct of object complement:

Doris considers Robert quite mature.

(3) It relates to the subject complement, or to the direct object if object complement:

Justin poured David some coffee.

(4) It doesn't have a corresponding passive subject :

It is recommended that he should go.

(5) In finite clauses it requires the subjective form of pronouns in formal use, but otherwise the objective form:

That Karen was still alive pleased us, we were confident that Karen was still alive.

The adverbial

(1) It is typically capable of occurring in more than one position in the clause, though its ability depends on the type and form of adverbial;

1. By then the book should have been returned to the library.
2. The book should by then have been returned to the library.
3. The book should have been returned to the library by then.
4. Nidal has at last finished her thesis.
5. Nidal is at last a doctor of philosophy.
6. Noura always finishes first.
7. Noura had always finished first.

(2) It is normally an adverb phrase, prepositional phrase, or clause, but can also be a noun phrase;

1. (Just) then, the telephone rang. (an adverb phrase)
2. You should have opened it "(a bit) more" carefully.
3. They had traveled a very long way. (a noun phrase)
4. Fa'aza hurried across the field. (a prepositional phrase)
5. We went for you because you were absent yesterday. (a finite clause)
6. She realized, lying there, what she must do. (a non-finite clause)

(3) It is optional, except for adverbials in the SVA and SVO clause types:

1. My office is in the next building.
2. That lecture bored me.
3. They are advising me legally

Chapter Three: Elements of Sentence Structure

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3.1 Introduction

Grammarians have generally agreed that 'word classes', such as, (nouns, adjectives, adverbs, verbs, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, interjunctions) may be joined to make the largest structural unit, which is called the sentence and they have played a role in their position in the sentence. (for word classes see Greenbaum and Quirk,1990;Leech and Svartvik,1994; Shammas,2001). Hence, one can notice that the sentence may have two word classes, such as, a noun, a verb, a nominal, and a verbal, as in:

1. Birds sing.
2. The bird sings sweatly.
3. The birds and the bees folic and play.
4. Layla met Ali.

Significantly speaking, a word class in a sentence has a function, and is joined with other word classes to form a meaningful sentence.These functions have various classifications from those of word classes; they are called:

1) Subject;
2) Predicate;
3) Object;
4) Complement;

5) Adjunct.

3.2 Elements of Sentence Structure

Elements of sentence can be divided into the following labels:

3.2.1 The subject

It is a term used in the analysis of grammatical functions to refer to a major constituent of sentence, traditionally associated with the 'doer' of an action, as in:

That cat bit the dog.

The subject is not only a noun or pronoun, but also it can be a word or more. A subject, therefore, can be one of these linguistic units:

1) A noun, as in:

Nafez is a good teacher of translation.

2) A pronoun, as in:

She has got a nice baby.

3) A demonstrative, as in:

1. These are my books.
2. This is her own house.

4) A noun phrase, as in:

1. Her speech annoyed me.

2. The pretty girl went in.

5) A clause, as in:

What she said annoyed me.

6) The Gerund, as in:

Walking through the dark streets was not easy.

7) the infinitive, as in:

To walk through dark streets was not easy.

As it is said earlier (see clause structure) one finite clause, so that the subject of a clause (i.e. a simple sentence) is normally followed by a finite form of verb; the subject should agree in number, person with its finite verb, as in:

1. The teacher is coming soon.

2. The dean and the teacher are coming too.

The subject can also have an agreement with its pronoun, as in:

1. I took off my clothes yesterday.

2. Women get dressed their own gowns.

With modal auxiliaries there is no difference in the form of the verb, as in:

1. I must leave.

2. The teacher must leave.

From a semantic point of view, the grammatical subject may typically have the function of the actor , in its relation to the verb; that is, the person, etc.... causing the happening denoted by the verb, as in:

1. The boy wrote a letter.
2. The storm is heavily blowing.

When an active sentence is transformed into a passive sentence, the subject of the active sentence usually becomes the agent of the passive. The agent is usually introduced in a by-phrase, as in :

1. Somebody cleans this room (Active)
2. This room is cleaned every day (by someone) (passive)
3. Somebody cleaned this room yesterday. (Active)
4. This room was cleaned yesterday (by someone) (passive)

In most passive sentences the agent is omitted, as in:

1. We will discuss the question at a meeting tomorrow. (active)
2. The question will be discussed at a meeting tomorrow. (passive)
3. The thief killed a police officer last night. (active)
4. A police officer was killed last night. (passive)

In most statements from a semantic view point, the topic is the subject of the sentence. Hence, the subject may, apart from controlling whether the verb is singular or plural in the third person of the present tense, master the form of certain objects and complements, as in:

1. He sees her. (sing. verb)
2. They see her.(plural verb)
3. I shaved myself. (1st person sing. obj.).
4. We shaved ourselves. (plural object)
5. He shaved himself. (3rd sing. object)
6. They shaved themselves. (plural object)
7. Nidal and Maysoon are my friends. (plural complement)
8. Hamid is my friend. (sing. complement)

3.2.2 The Object:

There have been two kinds of object: a direct object (Od), it is said, names the direct and immediate goal or receiver of the action, as in:

1. He made pictures.
   S V Od

2. We saw Ali.

S V Od

The indirect object (Oi) names the person or thing which is less directly acted on or to which something is given or said or shown; as in:

1. The nurse gave the patients their pills.

S V Oi Od

2. The nurse gave the pills for the patients.

S V Od Oi

The object, like the subject, may have the following linguistic forms:

1) a noun, as in:

The teacher punished the student.

2) a pronoun, as in:

1. I met her in the avenue.
2. We saw ourselves in the mirror.
3. He gave her a gift. Or
4. He gave a gift for her.
5. This book is mine.

You can notice here that the sentence (4) can have the direct object preceded the indirect object, so the indirect object is usually preceded by a preposition.

3) a gerund (……ing form), as in:

1. I like swimming.
2. She enjoys watching T.V.
3. I go wading.
4. We enjoy listening to music.

4) a noun phrase, as in:

1. I met this best student.
2. I gave this best student a nice gift.

5) in the passive construction, as in:

1. Many critics disliked the play. (Active)

   S V Od

2. The play was disliked (by many critics)

   S V pass. [A]

6) a clause, as in:

1. She told that he was absent.
2. I understood what she said.
3. I tell her what he says.

   S V Oi Od

Eventually, it is necessary to notify that the object of a clause refers to the person, thing …etc affected by the action of the verb, as in:

1. She kissed him gently on the cheek.

2. He parked his car outside the garden.

The direct object is often equivalent to a prepositional phrase with for :

1. They gave flowers to me.
2. I bought a new pair of shoes for Fa'aza.

But, an alternative prepositional construction is not always possible, as in:

1. We all wish you better health.
2. Rawida leaned down and gave him a real kiss.

3.2.3 The Complements

Complement is a term used in the analysis of grammatical function, to refer to a major constituent of sentence or clause structure, traditionally associated with completing the action specified by the verb. In its broadest sense, complement means something that is important to complete a grammatical construction. There have been three types of complement; these can be classified into :

1. clause complement,
2. adjective complement,
3. prepositional complement,

1) Clause Complements:

Clause complement can have:

a. a noun phrase as in:

He is a brilliant worker.

b. an adjective, as in:

Fa'aza is sick, her husband is melancholy.

c. a noun clause, as in:

The question is that the problem is serious.

Comparing the complement with the subject of a clause, its verbals usually precede it; it is usually known that the complement comes after the object if they come together, as in:

Her bad behavior makes them upset.

But the complement, unlike object, doesn't often have a corresponding passive subject, as in:

Upset is made them by her bad behavior.

It seems clear that the object of an active sentence can become subject of corresponding passive sentence, while the complement cannot.

Complement can have two types: (subject complement) and (object complement). The subject complement is usually found in the SVC pattern, as in:

(1) Susan is becoming quite mature. [Cs]

The object complement, on the other hand, is found in SVOC pattern:

(2) Doris considers Susan quite mature.

In [1], the subject complement has the quality or attribute of the subject [Susan], whereas in [2] the object complement characterizes the direct object.

In [1] and [2] the complement is an adjective phrase, but the same distinction applies where the complement is a noun phrase:

Ali is becoming a good student. [Cs]

His parents consider Ali a good student. [Co]

2) Adjective Complements

The adjectives used predicatively (i.e. happy, ugly), adjectival participles (very surprising), and (-ed) (like offended) may take different complements, as in:

1. The painting is ugly.
2. He thought the painting ugly.
3. The man is happy.

4. His views were very surprising.
5. The woman seemed very offended.

In sentence (3) the adjective complement is premodified by the intensifier very.

The comparative adjectives can have complements, as in:

1. The children are happier now.
2. These students are more intelligent.

These two sentences have adjectives as complement with a copula (i.e. verb to be).

Adjectives are not only subject complement to noun phrases, but also to finite clauses and non-finite ones, as in:

1. That you need a car is obvious.
2. To complain may be dangerous.

Adjectives can also be object complement in clauses, as in:

1. I consider what he did foolish.
2. She considers taking such risks crazy.

The adjectives which function as object complement often expresses the result of the process denoted by the verb, as in:

1. She pulled her belt tight.
2. He pushed the windows open.
3. She writes her letter neat.

The result can have the copula, as in:

1. Her belt is tight.
2. The window is open.
3. Her letter is neat.

Demonstrative adjectives can be in complement, as in:

1. No, please don't do that!
2. I'll take these.
3. She doesn't usually use this.
4. He admired those which were expensive.

Study these examples:

1. I am happy that you are here.
2. He was hesitant to see her.
3. I am eager to see her.
4. Jim is certain to succeed.

The complement of the adjectival, unlike the adverbial, is not transposable but retains its position after the adjectival, as in:

She was glad that he was safe.

but not

That he was safe she was glad.

(see Stageberg, 1981:289).

3.2.4 The predicate

The predicate is a term used in the analysis of grammatical functions, to refer to a major constituent of sentence structure, traditionally associated with a two-part analysis in which all obligatory constituents other than the subject are considered together. Hence, the predicate can be a verb or a verb phrase, as in:

1. He lives in Jarmana. (one verb)
2. He has lived in Jarmana. (verb phrase)
3. He has been living in Jarmana. (verb phrase)

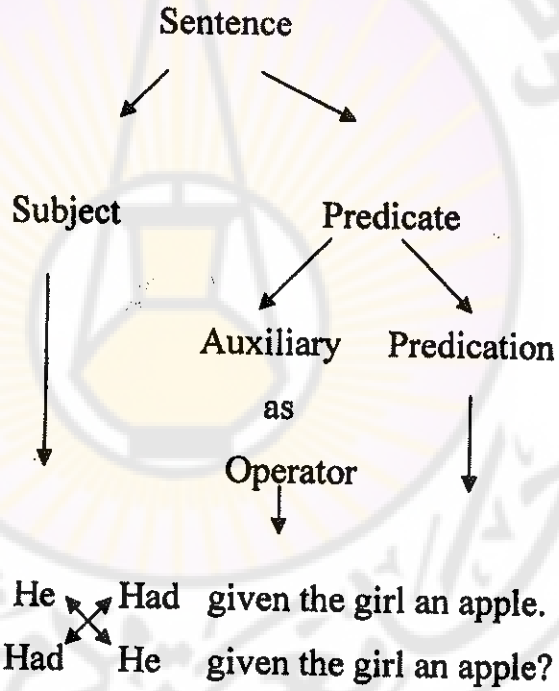
The predicate is always obligatory; in the sense that it is a basic component of the sentence, therefore, it can't be dropped, only verbless clauses can function that, as in:

1. The apples, when fresh, are carried and sorted.
2. Whether right or wrong, Ali always comes off worst in an argument.

The first verbless clause means 'when they are fresh', the second one means 'whether he is right or wrong'. Such clauses which contain no verb element, and often no subject is usually called "verbless clause".

Verbss almost always vary in their senses, as elements in clause structure and as a member of a word class. Verbs can also vary in their functions and kinds.

Verbs, as predicates, can be classified into two main distinctive parts : auxiliaries, as operators, and predication. This classification can diagrammatically be illustrated as follows :



(cited from Quirk and Greenbaum,1980:11)

This classification of the sentence into a subject and a predicate helps us to understand how declarative, negative,

interrogative sentences are usually formed, how certain adjuncts are positioned, and how certain types of emphasis are accomplished. In some approaches to English Grammar (notably Quirk Grammar), the first auxiliary verb To Be used in a verb phrase. It is so called because it performs as 'operation' on the sentence.

Verbs, as operators, may have important syntactic functions:

1. To transform statements into negatives by putting the particle 'not' after the operator, as in:

1. She may do it. (affirmative)
2. She may not do it. (negative)

2. To form interrogations, the operator is put in front of the subject (subject-operator inversion), as in:

1. He will speak first. (affirmative)
2. Will he speak first? (interrogative)

3. The verb Be can act as an operator whether it is an auxiliary, or not, as in:

1. Ali is searching the house, isn't he?
2. The woman is now a doctor, isn't she?

4. The verb Have can act as an operator whether it is auxiliary or not in British English, as in:

1. He has not any money, has he?
2. She has not any money, has she?

But in American English, Have acts as an operator only when it is an auxiliary; otherwise, we exploit of Do in different construction forms (the negative, interrogative, …etc), as in:

1. The girls have already arrived, haven't they?
2. They have blue dresses, don't they?
3. Does she have money? Yes, she does.

5. In declarative affirmative sentences it provides emphasis and requires a primary or a secondary stress, as in:

1. You did study.
2. You did very hard.

6. In tag questions it replaces a main verb, as in;

1. She likes ice cream, doesn't she?
2. He sold the house, didn't he?
3. They are learning English, aren't they?
4. She is fond of swimming, isn't she?

7. In sentences beginning with a negative adverbial like (seldom, never, not only), it expresses in an inverted structure the tense, as in:

1. Never did I dream of such a thing.
2. Not only does he dream, he has night mares.

8. It acts as a verb substitute for a main verb, as in:

1. We are swimming, so is she.

2. They sleep in their shoes and socks, so does she.

9. Auxiliary verbs, as operators, have different kinds of auxiliaries, the first auxiliary of a verb phrase is called the operator, as in:

1. They will be back after the weekend, won't they?
2. They were showing some comedy films, weren't they?
3. He was lecturing on English Grammar, wasn't he?
4. You have met the new students, haven't you?
5. She has been asking too many questions, hasn't she?

In categories of verbs as predicates there have been two main types: intensive and extensive (see Quirk and Greenbaum,1980:14). Intensive verbs can be defined as verbs having subject complements, as in:

1. She is a doctor.
2. She is a good nurse.

All other verbs are called extensive verbs: a transitive verb, as one of major types of extensive verbs, can be replaced by an indirect object construction with verb [give], as in:

1. I gave the door a kick.
2. I paid her a visit.

These verbs can have one object (i.e. transitive verbs (SVO), as in; they are usually called mono-transitive, as in:

1. She liked this novel.
2. She loves her mother.
3. They respect each other.

Another kind of extensive verbs are the verbs, which have two objects, are usually called ditransitive verbs in [SVOO], as in:

1. I'll give you the report on Monday.
2. They offered her a job last month.
3. They delivered him a letter yesterday.

At all above sentences have indirect objects and direct objects.

There are also the verbs, which don't have objects or complements, are called intransitive verbs in [SV], as in:

1. The children just laughed.
2. The sun rises in the east.
3. He is lying on his bed.

There are also verbs taking an object complement are called complex transitive, as in:

1. They make him the monitor every year.
2. They elected him a president last year.
3. His mother made him a cake last week.

Eventually, verbs can always be stative or dynamic. The statue verbs are those verbs which don't allow the progressive (continuous) aspect, as in:

1. Ali knows this grammar.
2. They realize the matter.
3. She loves her parents.
4. He appreciates her effort highly.
5. Water consists of hydrogen and Oxygen.
6. I forget his name.

While dynamic verbs show tense and aspect indicating conditions, as in:

1. I'm thinking about the grammar.
2. She's having a good time.
3. Susan is smelling the roses.
4. The doctor is seeing a patient.

3.2.5 The Adjuncts

Some grammarians have generally agreed to use ' an adverb or adverbial' as sentence members. But here, the term

'adjunct' is reasonably preferred because adjuncts as sentence elements contain both adverbs and prepositional phrases. Hence, adjuncts can be:

1) an adverbial phrase, as in:

1. She is speaking slowly.
2. My colleague has very kindly offered to boby-sit.

2) a prepositional phrase, as in:

1. A friend of mine works on a farm.
2. Her husband works in a factory.

3) clauses with a finite verb, as in:

1. He was melancholy when I met him.
2. We went swimming because it was hot.

4) infinite clauses, as in:

1. As usual, they were playing to win.
2. Their main aim is to earn more money.

5) -ed participale clauses, as in:

1. The police never found the money stolen in the robbery.
2. Most of the goods made in this factory are exported.

6) -ing participale clauses, as in:

1. He marched in on them, grinning broadly.
2. I was woken up by a bell ringing.

7) verbless clauses, as in:

1. Anxious for aquick decision, the president called for a vote.

2. She admitted to driving while under the influence of drink.

8) a noun phrase, as in:

1. I am studying this afternoon.

2. I see my wife two times a year.

3.2.6 The Basic Sentence Patterns:

English is not spoken by merely joining words together in some random fashions, but words are carefully arranged into certain patterns. In English there have been seven basic sentence patterns. It will now be our aim here to examine these basic sentence patterns of English. Any sentence uttered or written will possible be based on one of them.

Normally specific sentence positions are included in these basic sentence patterns. Each position in each pattern is the slot of a specific grammatical meaning. Let us see what is meant by grammatical meaning. Within linguistics, the role each linguistic level plays in the total interpretation of a

sentence is often referred to as the meaning of that level. One of the main levels involved is ' grammatical' (or structural) meaning (i.e. the meaning of grammatical structures).

In the sentence: The woman bought a house.

As an isolated term, the noun 'woman' would mean simply "adult female human being". But the dint of occupying it requires the additional meaning of the performer of the action, in this case, bought.

Another example is taken:

The woman is happy.

Woman seems not to be the performer of an action but it has an additional grammatical meaning "that which is described".

In a similar way, the verb, which always occupies the second slot in each sentence, has the grammatical meaning of predication, assertion. It usually predicates or asserts the occurrence of an action or the existence of a condition, as in:

1. Robert broke a window.
2. She seemed frightened.

It is the grammatical motor of the sentence. With the focus of attention on the grammatical meaning, the verb is commonly

exploited for both aspects of the verb, its form as a word class and its meaning as a predicator. Hence, the grammatical meaning is a meaning that is added to the sentence in terms of a specific position in a particular pattern.

There have been seven sentence patterns can be put. The following abbreviations for the various sentence elements can be applied:

S = subject

V = verb

O = Object

C = complement

A = adjunct

These (seven) sentence patterns can be categorized here:

I. SV: This sentence pattern consists of a subject and a verb. The verb can be one verb or a verbal phrase. It must also be a kind of intransitive verb that does not normally allow an object or any other obligatory elements, as in:

1. The sun shone.
   S V
2. The sun is shining.
   S V

3. The sun has been shining.

S V

II. SVO: This pattern of a sentence is composed of a subject, a verb, and one object; thus, the verb in such a structure is monotransitive verb, as in:

1. That lecture bored me.

S V O

2. The children played soccer.

S V O

3. She helped him.

S V O

III. SVC: This sentence structure must have a complement, in addition to the two fundamental components, the subject and the verb. The complement may be a noun or an adjective, as in:

1. Your lunch seems ready.

S V C

2. She is a teacher.

S V C

3. The doctors are kind.

S V C

IV. SVA: In this sentence pattern, the adjunct (A) is obligatory; it can be an adverbial or a prepositional phrase, as in:

1. His office is in the next building.

S V A

2. My mother is outside.

S V A

3. The balls are outdoors.

S V A

V. SVOO: This sentence pattern has two grammatical objects after the verb. These two objects called, in order, the indirect and the direct object, as in:

1. He sold the student a ticket.

S V Oi Od

2. He built them a house.

S V Oi Od

3. He asked her a question.

S V Oi Od

The verbs in this pattern are in a restriced group, such as, make, find, tell, build, offer, etc....(i.e.) they take two objects, and that each component is obligatory, i.e. they cannot be omitted.

VI. SVOC: This sentence structure includes, in addition to the subject and the verb, an object and a complement. Verbs that have an object and a complement are very small. This very small group of verbs includes; choose; elect; appoint; select; consider; image; believe;...; as in:

1. She believed Ali honest.

   S V O C

2. I imagined them outside.

   S V O C

3. She considered him a fool.

   S V O C

VII. SVOA: This pattern includes, apart from the subject and the verb, an object and an adjunct. One should remember that the adjunct is obligatory in this pattern, and it can be an adverbial or a prepositional phrase. Examine these examples:

1. You can put it on the table.

   S V O A

2. They will continue the discussion tomorrow.

   S V O C

3. They played football yesterday.

   S V O C

One can notice here that a given verb can belong, in its obvious sentences, to more than one pattern. It is also found that there are three main verb classes: intransitive verbs are followed by no obligatory element, and occur in SV pattern (e.g. shine)

Transitive verbs are followed by an object, and occur in patterns SVO (e.g. bore), SVOO (e.g. build), SVOC (e.g. consider), SVOA (e.g. put). Copular verbs are followed by a subject complement or an adverbial, and occur in patterns SVC (e.g. seem) SVA (e.g. be). It is clear that transitive verbs can be further divided into: monotransitive verbs occur in pattern SVO while ditransitive verbs occur in pattern SVOO. But Complex- Transitive verbs occur in patterns SVOC and SVOA as well.

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Chapter Four: Kinds of The English Sentences

4.1 Introduction

Sentence in English can be defined as the largest structural unit in terms of which the Grammar of a language is organized. Linguists are generally different in their definitions of the term sentence depending on their own linguistic theories. But plausibly, most grammarians have generally agreed on the need to recognize a functional classification of sentences into Statement, Question, Command, and Exclamatory kinds. There is also wide spread sentence patterns into simple vs compound, complex, compound-complex types i.e. consisting of one subject-verb unit, as opposed to more than one.

Hence, a sentence is a group of words that you use to communicate your ideas. Every sentence is formed from one or more clauses, and expresses a complete thought. There are basically four kinds of sentences in English: simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex.

It is usually said that a simple sentence is one independent clause, while a compound sentence is two or more independent clauses joined together. But a complex sentence contains one independent clause and one (or more) dependent clause. Eventually a compound-complex sentence

can also be similarly used. In this chapter, the focus will be on the types of sentences that can be functionally and formally classified into:

4.2 The Simple Sentences

As we said before, a simple sentence is composed of a single independent clause. This sentence can functionally be divided into the following subclauses (sentences): a statement, a question, a command, and an exclamation.

4.2.1 Statements

Statements are typically sentences which give information. Statements are also described as sentences in which the subject is present and generally comes before the verb, as in:

1. I am definitely going to the party tomorrow.
2. My parents have always lived in Syria.
3. Tom always goes to work on foot.
4. I like children very much.
5. Rawida often plays tennis.
6. Tom walks to work every morning.
7. We arrived at the airport early.

8. I saw some friends yesterday.

As it is clear, it is not the length of the statement, which makes it simple, compound or complex; it is always remembered that a sentence is simple only if it has one subject and one verb (i.e. a sentence consists of only one clause (see Quirk & Greenbaum,1980:166)

4.2.2 Questions

Questions are sentences marked by one more of the following features:

1) the placing of operator immediately in front of the subject [i.e. is, am, are, was, were, do, does, did, will, can,....etc] as in:

1. Is he going to the party tomorrow?
2. Are you playing tennis?
3. Am I a student?
4. Were you a chairman?
5. Was she a nurse?
6. Do you like her?
7. Does she use a computer?
8. Did you sightsee yesterday?
9. Can you speak English?

10. Will you join the team?

2) the sentence begins with an interrogative word, such as; who, whom, whose, where, as in:

1. Who came first?
2. When do you start work?
3. Whose book is this?

You can notice that these interrogatives which can be classified into two types. The first type of question is usually called an 'interrogative' or a 'yes-no question'.

Normally the second is called a 'Wh-question'. (see Leech & Svartvik,1999:278-279)

There are also direct and indirect question:

"How did you get on at your interview." She asked. [direct question].

She asked him if he know who built the Damascus Tower? [indirect question].

Indirect questions are always signaled by an interrogative word, such as, how or what or who. But direct questions need not contain an interrogative word. We have also other subtypes, such as, polite questions (addressing a stranger using please), negative questions, echo questions (see Leech & Svartvik Ibid:128-129)

Yes-No questions

They are so - called yes-no questions because the short responses are either yes or no. We usually make yes-no questions by shifting the word order, we put the first auxiliary verb [AV], as in:

1.

S+AV	AV + S
Tom will	Will Tom?
You have	Have you?
I can	Can you?

1. Will Tom be here tomorrow?
2. Have you been working hard?
3. Can you play soccer?

2.

S +V	AV + S
You live	Do you live?
The film begins	Does the film begin?

1. Do you live near here?
2. Does she play the piano well?

3.

S+V	AV+S
You sold	Did you sell?
The accident happened	Did the accident happen?

1. Did you sell the car?
2. Did they come late?

4.

S+AV	AV +S
Ali is	Is Ali?
You are	Are you?
I am	Am I?
I was	Was I?
We were	Were we?

1. Ali is ill today. Is Ali ill today?
2. you are a student. Are you a student?
3. I am a teacher. Am I a teacher?
4. I was a chairman. Was I a chairman?
5. We were students. Were we students?

Note that in the first group of sentences, you can find the use of auxiliaries, such as, will, can, have, and they are used

as the operators for yes-no questions. The second and third group show the dummy operator Do in the verb phrase. Auxiliary Do must be used in these sentences because there is no operator in the corresponding statement. Eventually the fourth group demonstrate the use of auxiliary "Be" as the operator has to be used here.

Wh-Questions

Wh-questions are formed with the aid of using a question-word like "who, when, where, how, what, etc; as in:

1) The sentence component, which contains the wh-word, should be put at the beginning of the sentence:

2) If the component containing the wh-word is subject, object, complement, or adjunct, put the operator in front of the subject, as these examples:

1. wh-element is subject:

Who is coming first to the party?

2. wh- element is object direct:

What did you buy for your daughter?

3. wh- element is subject complement:

Whose beautiful car is this?

4. wh-element is object complement:

How wide did they make the bookcase?

5. wh-element is adjunct:

1. When will you be appointed?
2. Where will I put the book?
3. How much does he care?
4. How did you do it?
5. How long have you been waiting?
6. How often do you visit your uncle?

Tag questions

Tag questions are mini-questions that we often put on the end of a sentence in English. In question tag, we usually use an auxiliary (have/was/will.....etc) as in:

1. Susan plays the piano, doesn't she?
2. You didn't lock the door, did you?
3. It was a good film, wasn't it?

Normally we use a negative question tag after a positive sentence, as in:

Positive Sentence	Negative Tag
1. Mary will be here soon,	won't she?
2. There was a lot of traffic,	wasn't there?
3.Ali should pass the exam,	shouldn't he?

and a positive question tag after a negative sentence:

Negative sentence +	Positive Tag
1. Mary won't be late,	will she?
2. They don't like us,	do they?
3. You haven't got a car?	have you?

The meaning of a question tag depends on how you say it. If your voice goes down, you aren't really asking a question; you are only inviting the addressee to agree with you; as in:

1. It's a nice day, isn 't it? 'Yes, lovely'.

2. Tom doesn't look well today, does he? 'No, he looks tired'.

But if the voice goes up, it is a real question, as in:

You haven't seen Ali today, have you? ' No, I'm afraid not'.

4.2.3 Commands

Command is a term used in the classification of sentence functions, and defined, sometimes on grammatical grounds. Syntactically a command is a sentence which typically has no

subject, and where the verb is in the imperative mood. Hence, in grammatical discussion, commands are usually referred to as 'imperative' in form.

Two types of commands can be distinguished here: 2nd person commands and 1st and 3rd person commands:

2nd person commands:

A command is usually a sentence with an imperative verb, i.e. the base form of the verb, without endings for number or tense, as in:

1. Behave yourself. 2. Go ahead.
3. Come here. 4. Do not hurry.

It is usually noticed that command sentences, in English, do not normally have an exclamation mark at the end, but a period, as in:

1. Please get ready as soon as possible.

2. Shut the window, please.

The only auxiliary verb used in commands is do, as in:

1. Do not stay too late, Susan.
2. Do not be a fool.

Like negated commands, do can also occur in positive commands, as in:

1. Do sit down.
2. Do tell us the truth.

Do can be followed by be only in commands in positive sentences, as in:

1. Do be careful.
2. Do be cautious.

As we notice, commands usually have no expressed subject. (i.e. subjectless). But we can say that there is an implied subject you. This is why this type of command is called '2nd person commands', especially in a reflexive pronoun yourself / yourselves, as in:

1. Behave yourself.
2. Be careful yourselves.

and also in a tag question:

1. Be quiet, will you?
2. Be polite, will you?

In impolite command constructions, you can be used, especially if it is stressed, as in:

You put that down.

The major command patterns can be divided into:

SV : Jump. (V)

SVC : Be reasonable. (VC)

SVOA : Put it on the table. (VOA)

First person and 3rd person commands:

First person imperatives can be formed by proposing the verb let, followed by a subject-in the objective case, as in:

1. Let's go and eat party.
2. Let's me see your essay.

This can be applied to the 3rd person subjects, as in:

1. Let each man decide for himself.
2. If anyone shrinks from this action, let him speak now.

4.2.4 Exclamations

Exclamation is a term used in the classification of sentence functions, and defined sometimes on grammatical and sometimes on semantic or sociolinguistic grounds. Traditionally, an exclamation referred to any emotional utterance, usually lacking the grammatical structure of a full sentence, and marked by strong intonation, as in:

Gosh! Gosh Grief!

In Quirk Grammar, exclamatory sentences have a more restricted definition, referring to constructions which begin with what or how without a following inversion of subject and verb, as in:

1. What a fool he was!
2. How nice she is!

These sentences are sometimes called exclamatives. Semantically, the function is primarily the expression of the speaker's feelings. It is a function which may also be expressed using other grammatical means:

What on earth is she doing!

The term is usually contrasted with three other major sentence functions: Statement, Question, and Command.

Hence, an exclamation is a type of sentence which is used to express the speaker's feeling or attitude: it is usually used in spoken English, as in:

1. What a lovely day it is!
2. How well she's playing today1

Like wh-questions, exclamations begin with the determiner what in a noun phrase or the degree word how with adjectives or adverbs. To form an exclamation sentence, you have to put the element of the sentence containing what or how at the

beginning of the sentence, but do not shift the order of subject and verb, as in:

1. **What a wonderful weather we're having!**
2. **What a good library you have!**
3. **How a beautiful singer she is!**
4. **How beautifully she sings!**
5. **How an interesting city it is!**
6. **What a wonderful time we've had!**

To show emotive emphasis in attitudinal exclamations, exclamatives are often shortened to a noun phrase or an adjectival phrase, as in:

1. **What a girl! (What a girl she is!)**
2. **How funny! (How funny it is!)**

Exclamation construction patterns can have:

1 SV : **What a huge crowd came!**

2 OdSVA : **What a time we've had!**

3 CsSV : **How lovely her manners are!**

4. ASVOd : **How you used to hate linguistics!**

5 ASV : **What a long time it lasted!**

4.3 The Compound Sentences:

Sentences, whether spoken or written, used as communicative devices throughout language, appear in a sequence, such as, a dialogue, a speech, a letter, a chapter, or a book. Throughout logical supporting sentences we get coherence, which is accomplished through the use of a broad range of characteristics that connect sentences. One way of such connections is the use of coordinating

conjunctions (and, but, or, so, for, ...etc) to join two clauses, i.e. two simple sentences. In doing so, we can get sentences which are called Compound Sentences.

Hence, a compound sentence is two or more independent clauses joined together. Two clauses in the same sentence may be related by coordination, as in:

Jim arrived at the office by ten but no one else was there.

Thus, a compound sentence has two or more independent clauses connected together.

There have been three ways to join the clauses:

1. with a coordinator.
2. with a conjunctive adverb.
3. with a semicolon.

A compound sentence with a coordinator can be formed as follows:

Independent clause + coordinator + independent clause, as in:

1. I enjoy tennis, but I hate golf.
2. The college campus is located in the city center, so it is very easy to do my shopping.
3. Women live longer than men, for they take better care of their health.
4. Women follow good diets, and they go to doctors more often.

Notice that there is a comma after the first independent clause. Notice also that various parts (clauses) joined together are of equal importance or rank. In the first sentence the two clauses express equal, contrasting ideas. In the sentence (2) the second clause is the result of the first clause. In the sentence (3)the second clause gives

the reason for the first clause while in sentence (4) the two clauses express equal, similar ideas.

Similarly a compound sentence with a conjunctive adverb can also be formed as follows:

Independent clause + conjunctive adverb + independent clause, as in:

1. I enjoy tennis; however, I hate golf.
2. It was hot; therefore, we went swimming.
3. Many colleges do not have dormitories; nevertheless, they provide various housing activities.
4. Students must take final exams; otherwise, they will receive a grade of incomplete.

Notice the punctuation: a semicolon follows the first independent clause, and a comma after the conjunctive adverb. Also, just like other coordinators, conjunctive adverbs express relationship between the clauses.

A compound sentence with a semicolon can also be formed with a semicolon alone, independent clause; as in:

1. My older brother studies law; my younger brother studies engineering.
2. I enjoy tennis; I hate golf.

Note this kind of a compound sentence is possible only when the two independent clauses are closely related in meaning.

In a coordinate construction, the idea of addition can be simply conveyed by negative coordinators, such as, 'neither, nor, not only'.

The first two can be used to connect coordinating clauses.

They emphasize that the negation applies to both units, as in:

1. Ali neither loves Mary , nor wants to marry her.

2. Rawida was neither happy nor sad.

3. Neither Peter nor his wife wanted the responsibility.

Nor and Neither, followed by subject operator inversion, can be used without being a correlative pair, as in:

1. She didn't expect him, or did she wait for him.

The negation 'not only' may be correlative with a following but, as in:

2. He did not come to help, but to hinder us.

3. They not only broke into his office, but they also tore up his books.

The term 'not only' can be placed initially with the subject and operator inversion, as in:

4. Not only did they break into his office, but they also tore up his books.

4.4 The Complex Sentences

A complex sentence contains one independent clause (main clause) and one or more dependent clauses (sub clauses). In a complex sentence, one idea is generally more important than the other important idea is placed in the dependent clause.

There have been three kinds of dependent clause: adverbial, anjective, and lanoun (for these see chapter two for the discussion of these kinds of clauses).

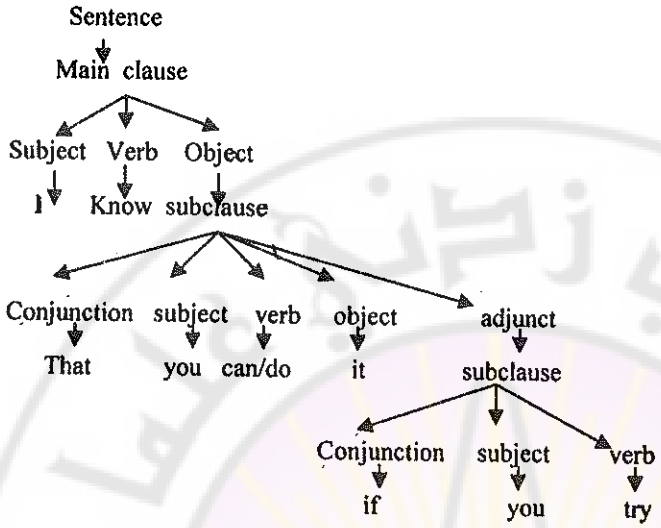
Like coordination, subordination can have one clause, which we call a sub-clause (or a subordinate clause, or a dependent clause), is included in the other, which we call the Main Clause. A sub-clause can also have another sub-clause inside it (some call it recursion). This means that one complex sentence may be composed of:1. one main clause and 2. one or more sub-clauses.

Use this example of a complex sentence and its sub-clauses:

I know that he can do it if he tries.

Analyzing the sentence above into various constituents (clauses) it contains, it is noticed that it has one main clause, I know, and two sub-clauses: 1) that he can do it, and 2) if he tries.

This sentence can be diagrammatically represented as follows:



(Compare Leech & Svatvirk,1999:382)

Adverbial Clauses

A dependent adverbial clause begins with an adverbial subordinator such as when, while, because, although, if....etc:

1. **Although it was cold, I went swimming.**
2. **Because it was hot, we went swimming.**
3. **When I was a child, I played on the streets.**
4. **If he studies hard, he will pass the exam.**

Notice that there are two possible positions for an adverbial clause: before or after the independent clause. If it comes before the independent clause, it is followed by a comma, if it comes after the independent clause, no comma is used, as in:

5. **He will pass the exam if he studied hard.**

Adjective Clauses

A dependent adjective (relative) clause begins with a relative pronoun, such as, who, whom, which, whose, or that, or with a relative adverb such as where or when. An adjective clause functions as an adjective; that is, it modifies a noun or pronoun, as in:

1. **Men who are not married are called bachelors.**
2. **Last year we vacationed on the Red Sea, which features excellent scuba diving.**

Noun Clauses

A dependent noun clause functions as a noun and begins with a wh-question word, that, whether, or sometimes if. A dependent noun clause can be either a subject or an object. No comma is necessary:

1. **That she is beautiful is obvious.**
2. **What she said annoyed me.**
3. **I do not know where she lives.**
4. **I know that she is intelligent.**

4.5 The compound-complex Sentences:

A compound-complex sentence is a combination of two or more independent clauses and one (or more) dependent clauses. Many combinations are possible, and the punctuation requires careful attention, as in:

1. **I wanted to travel after I graduated from college, but I had to go to work immediately.**

2. After I graduated from college, I wanted to travel, but I had to go to work immediately.

3. I wanted to travel after I graduated from college, but I had to go to work immediately because I had to support my family.

4. I couldn't decide whether I should work or what I should do, so I did nothing.

Punctuate the compound part of a compound-complex sentence like a compound sentence, that is, we use a semicolon/comma combination, or place a comma before a coordinator joining two clauses.

Punctuate the complex part like a complex sentence with adverbial clauses, put a comma after a dependent adverbial clause but not before them. Don't use commas with noun clauses.

Well-composed discourse requires a mixture of all four kinds of sentences: Simple, Compound, Complex, and Compound-Complex.

A discourse with only short, simple sentences is boring and ineffective, as is writing that uses too many compound sentences. Writing with complex sentences and participale phrases, structures that as subordination, is generally considered more mature, interesting, and effective in style.

In addition to that, cohesive devices which are words used to make a discourse a cohesive whole. Using such words as a guide makes easier for a reader of any discourse to follow his / her ideas. This is the topic of the next chapter.

Chapter Five: Cohesive Devices Their Categories and Functions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5.1 Introduction

Grammarians are generally different in their classifications of cohesive devices. Some grammarians prefer to use discourse makers while others use the label linking signals. Traditionally they have been called sentence connectors. Indeed they join sentences of various kinds: simple, compound, complex, compound-complex....etc to compose a discourse, or a text. This is why this chapter deals with something above the sentence, it is a text in writing or a discourse in general.

Cohesive devices have been preferred simply because they make discourse cohesive whole, i.e. one integrated and complete a discourse or text. Indeed they are the major devices or tools used as a means of such connectivity. Without such devices ,a discourse or a text would not have coherence or unity for the writer's or speaker's ideas.

Due to their various categories, cohesive devices have comprehensively different functions. They can show the notion of addition, that of concession, explanation.

Before introducing their categories and functions, it is important here to distinguish between adjuncts (used as adverbials), disjuncts, and conjuncts (cohesive devices).

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5.2 Adjuncts, Disjuncts and Conjuncts

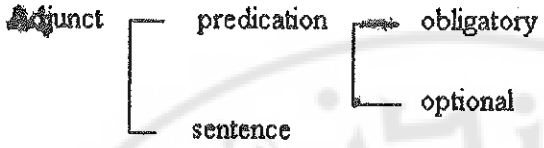
Some grammarians categorize cohesive devices into various labels; namely, Adjuncts, Disjuncts, and Conjuncts. These have been discussed in terms of their grammatical functions: (Greenbaum and Quirk,1990:162).

Adjuncts:

Adjuncts, for some grammarians, express a wide range of ideas, including manner, means, purpose, reason, place, and time (Burton and Roberts,1988:101). They also believe that adjuncts, as it is one type of adverbial functions, can have adverb phrases, prepositional phrases, and also adjunct adverbials, as in:

1. **Ahmed sunbathed beside a steam.**
2. **Alex spotted those wild cats in the spring.**
3. **Lisa put the liquor under the bed for safe keeping.**
4. **Sam sunbathed frequently.**
5. **He spotted the wild cats quite accidentally.**
6. **She put it under the bed surreptitiously.**
7. **He mended his car in the garage.**

Adjuncts can be categorized into:



Predication adjuncts

As their name implies, the relations of predication adjuncts are not so much with a whole sentence as with its predication, postoperator, as in:

1. She put the letter on the kitchen table.
2. She found the letter on the kitchen table.

In (1) the adjunct is obligatory whereas in (2) it is optional.

Sentence adjuncts

Uttering 'Ali kissed his mother', without needing to add an adjunct, we can use the adjunct in the following sentences optionally ,as in:

1. Ali kissed his mother on the cheek.
2. Ali kissed his mother on the platform.

Note that in the second sentence above the adjunct seems to be equally natural as initially used:

On the platform, Ali kissed his mother.

This is a characteristic of the sentence adjunct, showing its 'peripheral' relationship to the rest of the sentence as compared with the 'central' relationship of the predication adjunct in sentence (1).

It is noticed that predication adjuncts can be 'object-related' while sentence adjuncts are 'subject-related', as in:

1. We foresaw a disaster in June. [object-related].
2. In June, we foresaw a disaster. [subject-related].

Disjuncts:

Disjuncts express the speaker's or writer's attitude or approach to the statement he is making.

Disjuncts have a superior role to sentence elements, being somewhat detached from and superordinate to the rest of the sentence.

There have been two types:

1. Style disjuncts:

Style disjuncts convey the speaker's comment on the style and form of what is being said and define, in some way the condition under which 'authority' is being proposed for the statement:

1. Mr. Salman neglects his children.

2. Personally, Mr. Salman neglects his children.

It seems clear that the first sentence states the unsupported fact, while the second sentence is conditioned by a style disjunct (personally or personal observation).

2. Content disjuncts:

They make an observation on the actual content of an utterance based on its truth conditions, as in:

1. To the disgust of his neighbours, Mr. Salman neglects his children.

Study these examples:

1. The play was undoubtedly written by Shakepeare.
2. Frankly, I am tired.
3. Strictly, she should have conceded the point to her opponent.
4. I would not, personally, have taken offence at the remark.

This may be applied to: so wisely; curiously; funnily (enough); strangely; unexpectedly; hopefully; predictably; naturally; as in:

1. So wisely, Mr. Salman consulted his lawyer.
2. Naturally, my wife expected me home by then.
3. Strangely, she did not seek my nomination.

Disjuncts may include:

1. single-word adverbs:

briefly certainly frankly generally

honestly perhaps personally really

2. Phrases, include:

In a few words; in all fairness; in short; of course.

3. Non- finite clauses, such as:

Speaking Frankly; to tell you the truth; to cut a long story short.

4. Finite clauses, include:

If I may say so; if you don't mind my pointing it out.

Study these Example:

1-Honestly we knew nothing about it.

2- I believed him, personally

3- Frankly I don't trust him.

4- Did you take my newspaper?

Certainly not.

Conjuncts

Conjuncts introduce a new sentence in a series and link it logically with what has been said before. A conjunct may include:

1- altogether (meaning in all ; moreover; nevertheless; therefore; yet)

2- as a result ; in any case ; on the other hand;

3- Considering all that conclude all things considered

4- That is to say; what is more;

Study these examples:

1- Production ; gentlemen, has increased by twenty percent this year. Altogether, we can present the nation with a very satisfactory report.

2- Our report is very satisfactory; therefore,

3- Or we still, however, have a lot of work to do.

4- Yet I have heard so much about you that I feel I know you will already conjuncts also serve to conjoin two utterances or parts of an utteranc ,and they do so by expressing simultaneonsly the semantic relationship obtaining between them; as in:

The candidate is a fine teacher, abroadcaster of some experience, and expected drama critic. All the same, there is a feeling on the committee that someone younger should be appointed.

Here the conjunct (all the same) connects two independent sentences, indicating a concessive relation between them despite the candidate`s high qualification,

some members of the committee were not satisfied. Conjuncts can also be categorized into:

1- Enumerative as in:

In the first place, the economy is recovering, and secondly unemployment is beginning to decline. for one thing ;(for another thing); next; then again; finally; one , two, three, a….b…..c….. etc.

2- Additive, as in:

She has the ability, the experience ,and above all the courage to tackle the problem.

(furthermore; moreover; what is more; similarly; in addition; on top of that.

3- Summative, as in:

He was late for work, he quarrelled with a colleague , and he lost his wallet; all in all, it was a bad day.

(altogether; over all; therefore; in sum; to sum up)

5-3 Categories and functions of Cohesive Devices

There have been different categorise and fanchions of Cohesive Devices. They can be labeled as follows:

5-3-1 Listing;summative ;appositive; Resultive; inferentail; contrastive ,and transitional Devices, include:

1- Enumerative Devices, as in:

first, second, third; firstly, secondly, thirdly etc; one; two; a; b; etc; one thing and for another (thing); for a start; to begin with; to start with; in the first place; in the second place; next; then; finally; last; lastly; to conclude; etc…;

In the first place, he is a criminal, and secondly he is a gangster.

2- Additive and reinforcing devices; such as; also; therefore; moreover; in addition; above all; what is more ; etc; as in:

She has the ability, the experience, and above all the counrage to tackle the problem.

B- Summative Devices; such as :

altogether; over all; therefore; in sum; to sum up; as in:

He was late for work; he punished his children, and he lost his money; in sum; it was a terrible day.

C. Appositive devices, contain:

namely; that is to say; for example; for instance; in other words; specifically, as

There was one snag; namely; the weather.

D.Resultive devices include

so; consequently; hence;thus; therefore; as a result; accordinaly; in consequence; of course; as in;

I got there very late; therefore; I missed most of the fun.

E- Inferential Devices, such as :

else; otherwise ; then ; in other words ;in that case; so, as in:

You haven't answered my question; in other words, you disapprove of the proposal.

F- Contrastive Devices, include:

Reformulatory and replacive; such as; rather; also (or) better; more accurately;in other words; alias; worse; as in:

She's asked some of her friends- some of her husbands' friend rather.

2-Antithetic , such as ; instead; on the contrary; by contrast; on the other hand;

then ,as in:

They had expected to enjoy being in Syria but instead they both fell ill.

3- Concessive, includs:

however; still; nevertheless; how; all the same; of course ; that said ; anyhow; yet; any way; only; though; as in:

My age is against me; still, it's worth atry.

G- Transitional Devices, include:

1. Discoursal , such as:

incidently; now; by the way; as in;

Let me introduce you to my father; and by the way , did you tell that I'm moving?

2. Temporal; such as :

meanwhile; originally; subsequentty; eventually; in the meantime; as in ;

The ambulance got stuck in jam truffic

In the meantime ;the child became delirious.

5-3-2 Style

Disjuncts, include:

seriously; personally; strictly; perhaps; to be precise if I may say so; frankly; generally; honestly; presoanably; in all bluntly, briefly, candidly, confidentially; to speaking Frankness; to put it frankly; frankly speaking; asin: Frankly, I am tired

(To put it) briefly, there is nothing I can do to help.

You can, honestly, expect no further payments.

Strictly, she should confess the matter to the judge.

I would not personally have taken offence at the proposal.

5-3-3 Attitudinal Disjuncts:

understandably; of course; even more Important; wisely, to our surprise; to be sure; strangely; preferable; luckily; unexpectedly; happily; sadly; hopefully; fortunately; etc; as in:

1-The play was apparently written by Ben Johnson.

2-Wisely, she consulted her lawyer.

3-Naturally, my husband expected me home by then.

4-Obviously, the Judge called her evidence in question.

As we said earlier, cohesive devices are considered as an interrelated means of discourse functional connectedness and identity of a piece of spoken or written discourse.

Hopefully, these cohesive devices may enable and help the students make their own discourse a cohesive whole through training and practising of the adequate and actual use and application of these cohesive devices in your own discourse in a more plausible and coherent way.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Chapter Six: Texts


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Chapter one:

Exercise one: Define the following terms:

syntax, sentence, phrase.

Distinguish between syntax and sentence by using examples of you own.

Exercise two:

Underline the subject once and the predicate twice in these sentences:

1) When did you come back from Syria?

2) Where is she now?

3) None know exactly what to do at any time.

4) The beautiful singing girl will be singing more in the evening.

5) The servant has never cleaned the house properly.

6) Here is some coffee in the mug.

7) The coffee is her in the mug.

8) Building is yours.

9) That is mine.

10) Her will have been built by next month.

12) Swimming is interesting .

13) Summing in the sea, she saw a seal.

14) The last bit of news has been really interesting.

15) There are two apples in the plate.

16) To solve a problem needs reasoning.

17) That she is intelligent is obvious.

18) Coffee will have been being made.

19) Playing the piano can be necessary at times.

20) What she says is true.

21) Both the wife and her children left for Damascus.

Exercise Three:

Analyze the following sentences into phrases; identify the kind of each phrase; give each phrase a label structurally as in these example:

The Syrian Arab soldiers will liberate our occupied land form the Zionists.

Structurally:

a) The Syria Arab soldier will liberate our occupied land from the Zionists.

b) Will liberate is a verb phrase .

c) Our occupied land is a noun phrase.

d) From the Zionists is a preposition phrase.

1) He wants to go shopping this weekend.

2) She has heard that the fish are running.

3) The syllabi for the courses are included in the packet of material.

4) The test of the discase was not adequate

5) A flock of wide geese was seen heading north for the winter .

6) The teeth in front of his mouth need to be mended.

7)The flowers have spread through out the gardens.

8) The wolf is chasing after the sheep.

9) Belong iness is needed for a certain children group.

10) In the evening, she relaxes in front of the fire and writes a short story.

11) She worked from sunrise until sunset on her project.

12) She has received several awards for her research in medicine.

13) He had got several comments to offer about the play.

14) The famous singer has appeared in more than sixty films.

15) The company hired a computer to prepare marketing studies for the new product.

Exercise Four:

Identify the kind and function if each phrase [e.g.noun phrase,...] of the following sentences:

1) No one cares about what he says or does.

2) In the very place, where we met before, let's meet again.

3) All that confusion was caused by her negligence.

4) Despite the fact that she is now late, Rawida has always been punctual and highly committed to her work.

5) I will wait here in the station with you whether the train leaves on time or not.

6) Though snow had been falling all day long, everyone got to the church on time for the wedding.

7) The merchandise will be delivered as soon as it is paid for.

8) The government was overthrown in a revolution, and the king has never come back to his home land.

9) Most dresses are made of cotton, but some are a mixture of different materials.

10) Before you go out, make sure the windows are closed and gate closed.

11) He believed that they went in through the grange.

12) She is not concerned about when he will arrive.

13) When he will arrive is not important for her.

14) The students were waiting for the headmaster to come in.

15) Walking through dark streets is not easy.

16) The people walked here tend to be cheerful.

17) I like being in this room.

18) She was fined for dangerous driving.

19) What will you drink with your meal?

20) To my surprise, Rawida phoned the next evening.

Chapter two:

Exercise one:

Define each term and give an illustrative example for each one from your own:

an adjective clause, a main clause,a subordinate clause, a noun clause, an adverb, clause.

Identify different types of relative clauses giving an example for each one.

Exercise two:

Identify each clause in the following sentences .

Write NC, for a noun clause, AC for an adjective clause , Adv. For an adverbial clause, and S for the main clause representing simple independent sentences:

1) All the students have recently taken a long summer vacation.

2) The only book that I've ever bought has recently been lost, but the gaurds are looking for it.

3) Whenever you come, you find good hearted people

4) With a sudden jerk of his hand, he threw the ball across the field to one of the other players.

5) The major cause of ocean tides is the pull of the Moon onto the Earth.

6) Badir Al-Sayyab, born in Basrah, became famous as a poet and a critic.

7) Still a novelty in the late twentieth century, aphotography was limited to the rich.

8) If you come, I will come, provided that everything is well-prepared for the party.

9) To walk through dark street was not easy.

10) I would if I could.

Exercise Three

Complete each sentence using who/whom/whose/where:

1. What's the name of the man whose car you borrowed?
2. A cemetery is a place.....people are buried.
3. A pacifist is a person .....believes that all wars are wrong.
4. An orphan is a child .....parents are dead.
5. The place.....we spent our holidays was really beautiful.
6. This school is only for children.....first language is not English.
7. I don't know the name of the woman to.....I spoke on the phone.
8. The woman .....lives next door is a doctor.
9. I've found a book .....I was looking for this morning.

10. This is my friend whose car has recently been stolen.

Exercise Four

Make one sentence from two. Use the sentence in brackets to make a relative clause. Sometimes the clause goes in the middle of the sentence, sometimes at the end. You will need to use who(m)/whose/which/where.

1. Rawida is very friendly. (She lives next door).

Rawida, who lives next door, is very friendly.

2. I went to Tom's party. (we enjoyed it very much).

We went to Tom's party.....

3. I went to see the doctor. (He told me to rest for a few days).

4. John is one of my closest friends. (I have known him for a very long time).

5. I went to see the doctor. (He told me to rest for a few days).

6. Ann is away from home a lot. (Her job involves a lot of traveling).

7. The new station will be opened next month. (It can hold 100.000 people).

8. We often go to visit our friends in Bristol. (It is only 3. miles away).

9. Glasgow is the largest city in Scotland. (My brother lives there).

10. There's a woman living next door. (She's a doctor).

Chapter Three

Exercise One

Identify all objects and complements (if any) in each of these sentences. Circle the complement, underline the direct object once and the indirect twice:

1. They consider the new president the best leader their nation has ever had.

2. They go on objecting to the government's plans.

3. They proved themselves to be the best teachers in the country.

4. He was elected the monitor of the class.

5. Some coaches give their distinguished players small gifts to provoke them.

6. The salesclerk gave his instructions to the new employee.

7. He found it difficult to believe the report.

8. The unhappy woman became more and more encouraged with each passing day.

9. I was surprised that no a student was available on Friday.

10. The servant cleaned the room and took the dirty clothes to the launderette.

11. I almost always see him in the market.

12. She gave all her guests some copies of the evening paper.

13. He began work on a different bill.

14. There were several boxes in the store, and each box contained a dozen glasses.

Exercise Two

Identify the various clause elements in these sentences. Use letters S for direct subject, P for predicate, Oi for indirect object, Od for direct object, C for complement, and A for adjunct:

1. He is the suitable man for such a job.

2. What you believe could be untrue.

3. She felt better as soon as her brother had appeared.

4. He left the office without permission.

5. That she is beautiful is obvious.

6. What you think is different from what I think.

7. It snowed heavily last winter.

8. They favour what you have proposed.

9. She is being restless.

10. He is being naughty.

11. She gave the gift and went away.

12. She put the dishes on the kitchen table.

13. She placed the TV set in the corner.

14. She is a good translator.

15. He is a good teacher of translation.

16. They live in Damascus.

17. I have stayed at Jarmana for seven months.

18. You will have fewer financial problems with your income next year.

19. There are many new items to show.

20. It is better to go shopping earlier in the morning.

Exercise Three

Analyze the following sentences into phrases; identify the kind of each kind of each phrase; give each phrase a label functionally as in these examples:

The Palestine Arab Soldiers will liberate our land from the Zionists.

Functionally:

a) The Palestine Arab Soldiers is the subject.

b) Will liberate is the predicate.

c) our occupied land is a direct object.

d) from the Zionists is an indirect object.

1. I saw my friends yesterday.

2. I like children very much.

3. She cleans the house every weekend.

4. Everybody enjoyed the party very much.

5. Our guide spoke English very fluently.

6. I lost my money and passport last month.

7. They have met their friend in the street.

8. We arrived at the airport early.

9. She has been in Canada since April.

10. I'm going to Paris on Monday.

11. He lives in a big city all her life.

12. Tom always goes to work by car.

13. She is definitely going to the party tomorrow.

14. My parents have always lived in London.

15. I've never done it.

16. I can never remember his name.

17. Lucy hardly ever watches television.

18. We soon found the solution to the problem.

19. We are no longer friends.

20. Jack lost his job a year ago.

21. Rawida hasn't found a job yet.

22. I've only just had lunch.

23. I'm not hungry anymore.

24. I can remember it very clearly.

25. These trousers don't fit me either.

Exercise Four

Identify the sentence patterns in the following sentences using the elements S = subject; V = verb; O = object; C = complement; A = adjunct:

1. The moon has been shining.
2. The players played volleyball.
3. The teachers are kind.
4. My relations are outside.
5. She bought her children clothes.
6. He asked her a question.
7. She imagined in the library.
8. She considered him a fool.
9. She put the dishes on the table.
10. She played the piano last weekend.
11. He sold the student a ticket.

12. He sold a ticket to the student.
13. The servant opened the window.
14. Jim has never read King Lear.
15. The ship had vanished.
16. We enjoyed the party.
17. The cyclist appears weary.
18. The girl is here.
19. My brother is a doctor.
20. Food is good.

Chapter Four

Exercise One:

What is the type of each of the following sentences (simple, compound, ….etc)

1. I enjoy playing tennis every weekend.
2. I enjoy tennis; however, I hate skiing.
3. If he studied hard, he had passed the exam.
4. Because grammar is easy, I learned it quickly, but it took me several years to master writing.
5. Although he was ill, he attended the lecture.
6. No one dares tell the truth.
7. Ali is tall, but Muna is short.
8. You must study hard, or you will fail.
9. I went swimming because it was hot.
10. You have to study hard lest you should fail.
11. Unless it is too late, you could go to the theatre.

12. I love swimming, but she hates it.
13. I have studied English for six years yet I don't master it.
14. Some students do not like to write term papers.
15. This is the girl whom they like very much.
16. This is the man whose money was stolen.
17. The weather is almost always nice in Syria.
18. My wife and I can cook very well.
19. I enjoy tennis; I hate golf.
20. The college campus is in the city centre; therefore, it is very easy to do my shopping.

Excercise two :

Define the following terms and give sentences of your own:
a statement , a question, a command, an exclamination.

Excercise three:

Compare and contrast between simple sentences and that of compound with your own examples?

Exercise four :

what is the main role of different kinds of English sentences in making your discourse a cohesive whole? Discuss and reinforce your answer with good English sentences of your own ?

Chapter Five; Exercise One

1. Define adjuncts, disjuncts, and conjuncts and identify their kinds giving illustrative example for each one.

2. Compare and Contrast between adjuncts and conjuncts with your own examples.

Exercise Two

The following is a passage with some cohesive devices missing; fill in the blanks with appropriate discourse markers/cohesive devices:

As College Students are especially technologically skilled they can easily become nonstop Net-surfers.

Many colleges provide computers at several locations around campus since students can use them at any time day or night. , students can spend too much time surfing the Net ..... "surfing" their textbooks. Last semester, nine freshman at College flunked out ..... they became internet addicts.

....., even though the internet is an excellent source of information and entertainment,..... we must not let take over our lives.

Exercise Three

Add another independent clause and circle the cohesive devices and add punctuation:

1. The college campus is located in the city centre; therefore, it is very easy to do my shopping.
2. Students can attend day classes moreover.....
3. Students can live in dormitories otherwise.....
4. I have finished my translation homework however.....
5. I have studied English for six years nevertheless.....
6. Native and nonnative English speakers have different needs therefore.....

7. The instructor gave us eight weeks to write our term papers nonetheless……..

8. My roommate scored very high on the English test consequently……..

9. Students must take final exams otherwise……..

10. Electric cars use relatively cheep electricity for power thus……..

11. The cost of gasoline is rising as a result……

12. Cold water is denser than warm water……therefore

13. Fresh water is less dense than salt so ……

14. The new law increases many benefits legal immigrants as a consequence……..

15. I failed the lest although ……

Exercise Four

Use appropriate cohesive devices to connect these sentences:

1. Testing language has traditionally taken the form of testing knowledge of vocabulary and grammar.

There is much more being able to use language than knowledge about it. Dell Hymes proposed the concept of communicative competence. He argued that a speaker can be able to produce grammatical sentences that are completely appropriate. In communicative competence, he concluded not only the ability to form correct sentences but also to use them at appropriate times. Hymes proposed the idea in the early 1970s, it has been expanded considerably, and various types of competencies have been

proposed. The basic idea of communicative competence remains the ability to use language appropriately, both receptively and productively, in real situations.

2. There is no doubt that the Us-Israeli alliance has the most up-to-date and the most destructive arms in the world. No other nation can confront this ill-famed alliance with such weapons. Peoples have to resort to other methods of resistance to restore their occupied lands.

People use the armed struggle and other instruments such as stones; other times they use their own bodies as bombs to resist the occupiers. They don't have sophisticated weapons like that of the US and Israel. They still have the might of right and will and determination to continue resistance for the liberation of their lands and the restoration of their usurped rights.

Exercise Five

Translate passage (2) above into good Arabic. Compare the cohesive devices you had to use in both Arabic and English.


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